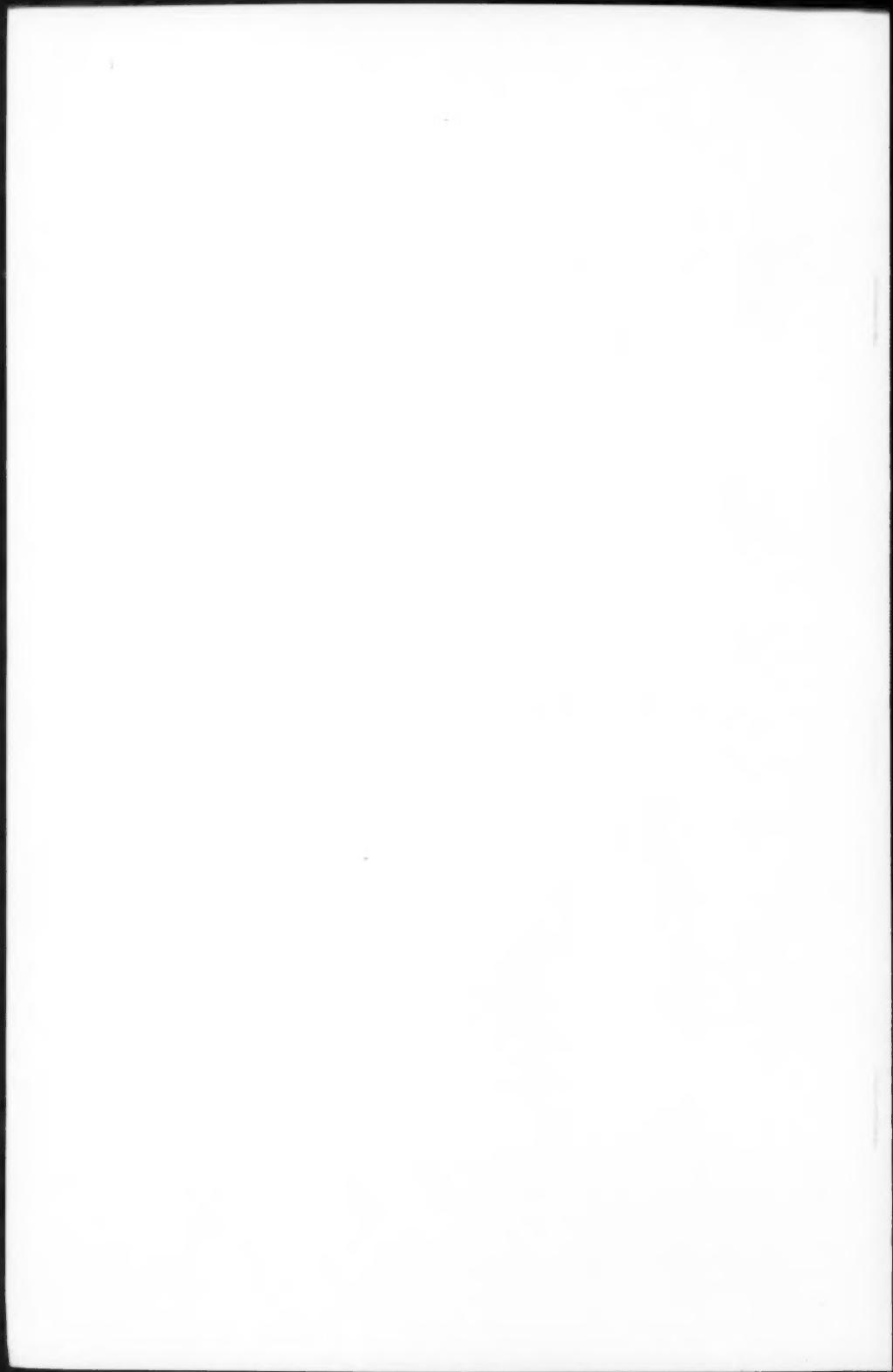


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Education and the Sense for Style

STANLEY J. IDZERDA

If a sense for style is the ultimate aim of education, says the author, the whole milieu of the college—plant, extracurricular activities and teaching—must reflect faculty concern for developing that quality

For nearly a full generation A. N. Whitehead's essay, "The Aims of Education," has served as a touchstone and a mine of quotations for speakers and writers concerned with college and university problems. Yet none that I know of develops what seems to me to be Whitehead's main theme—that a "sense for style" is the last and most useful acquirement of the educated mind.

It is impossible to improve upon the warm and polished aphorisms of Whitehead, but an exegesis of this "sense for style" as it relates to our efforts as college teachers may be in order. Certainly, as a prophet in the educational world Whitehead has not been without honor but, like the prophets, his precepts have more often been honored in the breach.

There will be some who may object that the problem of style is so thorny and so broad in its ramifications that it cannot be discussed profitably; there are others who will claim that style is essentially ineffable. They would put a gloss on Louis Armstrong's wonderful epigram: "Style is What, If You Have to Ask What it is, You Ain't Ever Going to Know." Granting these objections, I think we will agree that solutions to the problem of style can not be confined to copybook maxims intended to reduce error or give polish to one's expository prose. Much more is needed: at the least we must take into account the intellect, the senses and the will of the person who has or seeks style.

The sense for style may be achieved by those who appreciate that their mind is an instrument of extraordinary power and not merely a vague sensorium for the buzzing confusion of raw experience. Such an instrument would give order, precision and form to experience and would constantly attempt to return to living reality and the

clarity and exactness of expression that the experience requires. As an instrument, a mind with a sense for style will not fall into the common locution: "I feel," when the speaker means "I think"; such an instrument properly used will not have to repeat regularly during a conversation: "I mean." It will be able to distinguish between feeling and thinking, and it will be able to express with reasonable accuracy what it means, without constant reiteration of attempted meaning.

At the same time, this order, precision and clarity of intellect will not impose order or style where there is none; nor will it require form of the chaotic. It will realize, with Chesterton, that "pure logic is the only thing an insane man has left," and it will know, with Aristotle, that on occasion poetry is more philosophical than history. At the same time, the ice-water of the intellect will neither diminish the power of passion and imagination; nor will it remove the possibility of ambiguity and paradox. In sum, the intellect as an instrument in our quest for style will be so developed as to result in a disciplined imagination.

The senses are significant for a sense of style because they may either atrophy or be distracted as easily as intellectual powers may be thwarted through misuse or disuse. A student of biology cannot come to understand the life sciences exclusively from books, but must have a keen eye and accurate ear, and be able to learn through the tips of his fingers. Similarly, the person who seeks to develop a sense for style must be aware that if all that the senses deliver to the intellect is banal or trite, derived chiefly from a cacophony of sounds meliorated with music by Muzak, and from sights that lack significant space, color, texture or movement, then we have not reality but an existential drabness which makes impossible any humane response to the wonders of existence. The development of the senses requires a certain élan deriving from the proper love and development of the whole or physical self, but it also requires self-conscious effort to see and hear and feel both the exquisite and the crude, the formal and the colorful, regardless of unconscious attempts to use our senses as a screen from reality.

The will or the desire of the stylist must be harnessed as part of the harmonious team which includes the senses and the intellect. He must *want* to be able to fashion what he does with that proper combination of power and restraint, attainment and measure, inevitability and freedom. It seems to me that what the will must have is the drive to craftsmanship. The do-it-yourself craze may be

a result of our fear of leisure or simply the high cost of having someone else do it. On the other hand, it may also indicate that many of us envy the artisan his sense of craft, his joy in struggling with the recalcitrance of the material, and finally the achievement of a tangible form with a mark upon it of his own personality. If this guess be accurate, we might conclude that many persons are living stunted professional lives, if indeed they have even a vague notion of what a "profession" is. In any event, the sense of craft must inform everything we do, or we have no mentor at all.

Few will dispute this summary analysis of the personal elements in the quest for style, except in detail. How then can a college education help the student achieve a sense of style, or at least aspire in that direction? The first response of many college faculty members is that a student comes to college for social and economic mobility, to "qualify" for a "slot" in upper-middle-class culture, and that in any case four years is too brief a span in the life of a late adolescent; we should not expect too much.

Yet, when we have granted an inadequacy of motives—after we have blamed the grade school, the high school, the parents, the present administration and the last administration, as well as an entire culture that is out of joint—we *still* have the students for four years. During these years they will be more or less withdrawn from many aspects of life and they are entering a community of learning which has a long history and vast pretensions. Many of them have as much taste or love for the community they left as Stendhal had for the grubby provincial town in which he was raised. Many of them have high hopes for—they know not what. Most expect a radical departure from the goals and values of their former existence, although they may not be capable of beginning to adumbrate either the goals or the values. There is a vast fund of potential idealism in these thousands of young adults who confidently place themselves under our care each year. Can they expect to find that their sense for style will be developed?

One would think that, of all communities, that of a university or college would be the place where their expectations might be met. Here is a community distinguished from others in that the lust for knowledge, for understanding and for wisdom is stronger than the lust for power, self or prestige. This community is also aware that diversity is not necessarily heresy and that, in a college or university worthy of the name, the much vaunted pluralism which we claim as an American virtue is institutionalized as a value and as

a practice. What I am saying is that the university has a style of life, a style of existence—serving as a frame for the things it does, the ideas it teaches and the attitudes it transmits. If the style of the institution and the teaching are in fundamental opposition, if there are serious breaches between the profession and the practice of the older members of the university community, we can foresee that many of the highest expectations of the younger members are going to be disappointed: any "sense for style" gained will be a negative quantity.

We need not accept the common notion that the campus is divided into at least two cultures: one for the faculty and the other for the students. In some cases these two cultures are in opposition and express mutual contempt and annoyance. On more than one occasion, however, the distinct faculty and student cultures are separated by mutual consent. David Riesman has suggested that ". . . many faculty members, much as they may vocally deplore the political apathy and Philistinism of students, may welcome it unconsciously as a justification for their own preoccupation with research and lack of interest in or even fear of undergraduates."¹ When the student perceives such an attitude, he gains what credits are necessary for the job market or for the graduate school he wishes to enter, and any living nexus between student and faculty is lost for ever. The "sense for style" he has gained is enlightened middle-class hedonism, although he has not even been provided with a vocabulary to express it.

In the case of a division between student culture and faculty culture, we can guess that the college has several other characteristics.

First, it is probable that the faculty culture in this situation is characterized by a mosaic of vested academic interests, by an intellectual *anomie*, which means that the sense of place and the sense of purpose are lost. In these circumstances the faculty possess as their only (inadvertent) bond, the goal of professional advancement.

Second, on the student side, there is a plethora of "extracurricular activities" sponsored by a third entity known as "the administration." The apparent motive of the luckless administrator who is asked: "Why the feverish pullulation of extracurricular activities?" comes in his response that "It keeps the students occupied, and it is good for School Spirit." Some students accept this, but most respond with that apathy for which they are now famed. Instead of condemning them for their apathy, I think we should see in it the unplumbed wisdom of innocence. They have had few signals from the

older members of the community regarding the kind of life worth while (outside of dutiful attention in the classroom), but most of them are not willing to dedicate themselves to "extracurricular life" as a cheap surrogate for the sort of existence they only dimly divine is possible.

What can we do which will at least encourage a "sense for style" as a result of formal higher education? The first condition is that the faculty realize that the whole milieu, the whole environment, the entire climate of the campus must reflect faculty interest, concern and awareness of the need for the development of a "sense for style," as well as faculty responsibility for the climate.

We may begin with what is commonly referred to as the "physical plant." If the word "plant" raises a vision of something organically related to the function of the buildings and other structures, and the activities going on inside these buildings, then the visionary has been spared the sight of most college plants. Even after the space utilization experts have finished with the plants used by colleges, any relationship to the living needs of those who use the plant is usually adventitious. What we usually provide is a witless and heartless mélange of Gothic, Georgian, Victorian and Greenhouse Modern. It is not the mélange that causes the problem: when Thomas Jefferson planned the University of Virginia, he intended architectural diversity. The complaint here is of a lack of wit and heart; further, the members of the groves of Academe need to be more concerned with the psychic impact made by campus architecture than with the availability of parking lots.

To mention one example, those buildings we no longer call dormitories but now style "residence halls." The plain conclusion we might draw from the change of name is that these buildings are meant for something more than sleeping. I have been on one campus in which the interiors of new "residence halls" were a Kafkesque, labyrinthine expanse of cinder block, painted in varying shades of lively grey, a prospect which would have discouraged even Theseus. The halls were tunnels, and the walls were unrelieved by anything but "clean lines." When I questioned one of the higher academic officers in this university about the "residence halls," he did not mention the failure or the lack of concern of the departments of home economics, fine arts, or architecture or music; he turned his vapid gaze upon my naiveté and said: "Our students do not come from anything which would lead them to expect more than this."

I can think of another university, in which the residence halls are rightly named, and have in common with my first example only cinder-block construction. Here the arts faculty, in consultation with other members of the university community, have provided the color and richness that give larger meaning to architecture as a space art. They have gone further and have seen to it that the materials that grace the walls, and the very furniture in the rooms, all challenge the eye. The lounges in these residence halls happily lack both of the two chief characteristics found in most of their type: either the garishness of a third-rate bus station or the somnolence and flatulent decency of a first-rate funeral parlor. In short, whether in class or out, the students in this university have had their possibilities respected and they are learning their lessons in spite of themselves.

The college milieu includes more than living quarters. It does indeed include "extracurricular activities," and the same rule applies: if the faculty is concerned with what goes on in so-called extracurricular life, then these side-shows can become part of the main tent; they can lose their curse as mere entertainment, as time killing, or as training for spectatorship and consumership. They can become elements in that "sense for style" which we seek. This means that all the faculty take cognizance of the lectures, concerts, art exhibits and films which are part of campus life, that they relate these events to what goes on in their classrooms, laboratories and seminars. If a faculty member finds that he merely tolerates these activities, and that in fact he has neither the time nor the opportunity to attend them himself, nor to relate them to his work with his students, then he has forfeited part of his responsibility as a member of the community. He has also missed a chance to demonstrate that learning and life are not nearly as far apart as detractors of higher education would like to think.

Finally, there is the classroom. Some formal teaching must go on in this happy milieu I have sketched. Some requirements must be met, assignments given, tests taken and judgments made upon performance. We come back to my earlier comments concerning the self-evident truth that the senses, the intellect and the will of the student must be considered all together, as one naturally considers the whole of a student's personality rather than fragments of it.

When we concern ourselves with the sense for style in the classroom, we can assume that one of the obvious ways to encourage it is by giving the student ample opportunity to communicate his ideas

under every guise available to the species. Form, texture and color are categories not restricted to cloth, stone, wood, tones and puddings, but have a bearing also upon the student's ability to express himself in words. One picture may be worth a thousand words, but for all that, Shakespeare did not devote himself to drawing illustrations for comic strips. We have often seen students who were engineers, painters or musicians expressing a contempt for the English language on the grounds that their discipline dealt with things, not words. This is a naive form of nominalism, and is encouraged by faculty members who restrict the students' responses to "True" and "False" or to that electronic hopscotch in which the student chooses one of five phrases, three of which are obviously phony and the other two ambiguous in meaning.

A sense for style may be developed when the student is required to shape the inchoate but exciting thoughts that result from his attempts to cope with reality. Lacking this "sense for style," he may be reduced to cant expressions, or to the ultimate self-deception: that his thoughts are just too deep for mere human expression. One of the ways he will learn how to express himself will be to read widely in his field, to read beyond the textbooks, the manuals and the cribsheets.

Among those most reluctant to read are students in the fine arts and the professions. This reluctance comes from the assumption that as artists and professionals they are concerned almost exclusively with skills, based upon a shallow foundation of concepts or theories. The art student is bored with aesthetics, the home economist with biochemistry, the law student with philosophy. All of them are left cold by history, including the history of their own profession. The result is that we have students in the arts and the professions who are not only inarticulate but also anti-intellectual. As professionals the only thing they are able to profess, if they are fortunate, is competence in the performance of set tasks.

Note that I place the major responsibility for the development of the "sense for style" upon the shoulders of the faculty. This responsibility includes awareness of the total milieu of the university and a willingness to influence that milieu. It assumes competence in the field professed by the members of the several disciplines represented.

But the professors of the disciplines must go beyond mere competence. In a commentary upon St. Paul's "Knowledge puffeth up," Thomas Aquinas remarked that "The text applies when knowledge

is without love." The faculty must have such a regard, such a passion for their discipline, that it is reflected in their bearing, their expression, their relationship with others, and especially in their teaching.

The results of such attitudes in the faculty will be plain in its impact upon the students. Observing the faculty, the students will appreciate that those without a "sense for style" are, in E. E. Cummings' terms, not alive, they are "undead." They will conclude that Yeats was mistaken when he wrote: "The intellect of man is forced to choose perfection of the life, or of the work," for they will see that this is a false rendering of human existence. In their own teachers, whose free disciples they are, they will realize that a "sense for style" must become such a part of their being that the style they finally assume will not be restricted to their profession but will be a "style of life," enriching all that it touches.

¹ "Student Culture and Faculty Values," in *Yearbook of Education*, 1959, pp. 392-3

An Inquiry Concerning Academic Freedom

EDWARD H. LITCHFIELD

In an open letter to the chairman of his board, a university chancellor sets a painstaking investigation of charges against a professor's loyalty in the context of the university's role in a pluralist society

Once each year the laws of the Commonwealth require that I review the faculty and administration of this University and advise the Commonwealth as to whether or not there are any among us who are known to be subversive. After a more than usually assiduous self-scrutiny I can say that to the best of our careful knowledge there is none.

The faculties, trustees and administration of this institution are poignantly aware of the dangers implicit in our conflict with international communism. If we are vigilant in our efforts to prevent subversion from developing within our institution, that effort arises primarily from our convictions regarding our way of life and the threats to which it is subjected. While our concern is buttressed by the statutory law of the Commonwealth which periodically reminds us of the dangers which an unprincipled competitor forces upon us, we are equally disciplined in this home of constitutional government by a rich tradition of freedom of expression which is the very heart of the society which we are intent upon protecting from subversion either from within or without.

You will be among the first to understand that an American university is by definition a place of free inquiry. It is not a government

Note: Save for the substitution of pronouns and periphrases for the name of the accused professor, which will be of no concern to readers of *Liberal Education*, this is the exact text of a letter addressed to Mr. Gwilym A. Price by Chancellor Litchfield of the University of Pittsburgh on 13 June 1961.

bureau, nor an industrial corporation, nor a church. Its role in society postulates question, criticism, controversy, debate and doubt in all matters, social as well as scientific. The university embraces and supports the society in which it operates, but it knows no established doctrines, accepts no ordained patterns of behavior, acknowledges no truth as given. Were it otherwise the university would be unworthy of the role which our society has assigned it.

In the last analysis, the university must be free to think as its members will, to the same extent and for the same reason that the press must be free to comment as it will, as one branch of government must function independent of another, as the churches must be free to offer doctrinal sanctuary, as the corporations must have opportunity to pursue product and market with an absolute minimum of outside direction.

As you well know, I have divided my life among the private corporation, the government office and the campus, and I understand that each of these is, as is the church and the press, a prime source of strength and thought and aspiration. It must not be obscured that each of these contributes to and perpetuates our society precisely because we do postulate multiple sources of ideas, of values, of ultimate truths.

In fulfilling its function of inquiry, research and experimentation, the university continuously exercises this postulate of pluralistic values. We thus often find ourselves at variance with established public policy and conventional ideology. But, however we may differ from established views, and however wrong we may be, it does not follow that the institution or its members are subversive unless it is demonstrably clear that we advocate the destruction of our constitutional government, which is, in fact, the destruction of our pluralist society.

The principal threat of international communism lies in its clear intent to destroy the pluralism which the press, the corporation, the church and the university represent. We must be certain that that threat does not succeed.

As staunch defenders of a democratic system we must also be concerned about those who would overzealously "defend" our social system in such a way as to destroy it. If I rise and damn my fellow man, I should be prepared with clear and incontrovertible evidence. I should first have conferred with his peers, should have tried established channels for just consideration of my claim, and otherwise

should have exhausted all the vehicles and remedies of an orderly society.

Surely in these paragraphs you recognize that we are speaking of principles, of first principles of a society which is in challenge the world over. I review them here as a framework in which to discuss the particular matter of this report.

During the year, we exercised every care in making certain that we did not admit to our fellowship those who would subvert a society which postulates multiplicity of values, pluralist institutions and the constitutional framework designed to preserve them. We are satisfied today that, on the basis of information which we are able after due and determined effort to obtain, there is no one among our faculty and administration who believes that our society as I have defined it should be replaced by another.

While in a sense our statutory responsibilities will be discharged when this single statement is submitted to the Commonwealth, it is important to speak of a particular situation which has caused much public comment. I believe the essentials both as to procedure of inquiry and the substance of conclusion are these:

1. A question having been raised in the legislature and in the public press as to a certain professor's association with international communism, I appointed a fact-finding committee to look into the matter. The committee represented the University trustees, the administration and the faculty. It included a lawyer, a former corporation executive, and a faculty member whose whole professional life has been spent in an academic environment. The trustee was Mr. George Lockhart, a partner in the firm of Kirkpatrick, Pomeroy, Lockhart & Johnson. The administration representative and chairman of the committee was Mr. Philip H. Powers, Assistant Chancellor for Development, and a business executive of long standing in this community. The faculty member was Dr. Robert E. Olson, Professor of Biochemistry and Nutrition in the Graduate School of Public Health. At the same time, the committee retained the competent and neutral law firm of Eckert, Seamans and Cherin to undertake the staff work.
2. The intended procedure of objective review of the facts of the case was discussed in advance with the professor involved, with the Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom of the University Senate and, of course, the Executive Committee of the Board of Trustees. The procedure was acceptable to all of these parties and the investigation therefore went forward with general concurrence as to the wisdom of this method of review.
3. The committee and its counsel have spent more than four months in painstaking investigation, even though the task by its very nature was

a distasteful one to them. Every appropriate investigatory agency of the federal government has been consulted and every one has been cooperative and in most instances has been able to provide the committee with useful information. The professor's students and colleagues, both in this University and in other institutions, have been contributors to the materials which the committee reviewed. Associates of other years have volunteered information and others have responded to inquiries from the committee and from counsel. A wide variety of other public and private institutions have been involved in supplying information which has been helpful to the committee in its deliberations. In addition, the committee has consulted extensively with a variety of highly qualified persons in a position to make substantive judgments about the significance of the professor's writings. He himself was given every opportunity to state his views and comment on all charges made against him. At the same time the committee was firm in obtaining from him all relevant information. He was cooperative and frank throughout.

In all, six professional people have been engaged in this investigation for four months. The evidence from all over the world runs to several thousand pages. We have invested a very considerable amount of our time and resources, and have utilized every outside resource available to us. This has been a laborious, time-consuming, expensive, but I think thorough examination of the record.

4. In making this examination, we have done so with appropriate recognition of the concepts of legal relevance, hearsay evidence and other safeguards traditional in judicial hearings. The committee also necessarily was guided by common sense, rational judgment and general logic. It tried to be fair both to the charges and to the individual being charged. The committee had no powers of subpoena, of course, but depended upon the willingness of a great many persons honestly and voluntarily to set forth facts as they knew them.

I believe, therefore, that we can rightly conclude that this has been a determined, even a monumental, effort to establish the specifics of the matter, in order that we could act dispassionately.

5. The fact-finding committee has now reported on the essential question addressed to it, which was: "Is this professor a subversive person as defined by the Pennsylvania Loyalty Act of 1951?" Collaterally, the committee has received information concerning his competence as a scholar and a teacher, and concerning his views on controversial issues. On the basis of the considerable evidence it was able to gather, the committee members unanimously drew their conclusions as follows:
 - a. The professor in question is a loyal American, is not now and never has been a Communist and is not a subversive person as defined by the Pennsylvania Loyalty Act of 1951.
 - b. He is an exceptionally gifted scholar and an inspiring professor who does not teach doctrines subversive to our government.

- c. He exhibits exceptional independence of thought and action, according to his own conscience, in both his scholarly and societal pursuits.
- d. He has in the past knowingly associated with Communists and Communist-front organizations, solely in order to promote causes in which he believed deeply, especially the fight against Fascism and the establishment of a world peace.
- e. In common with many other young people during the depression, he maintained hope for some of the promises of the Soviet Union, but this feeling has given way to disillusionment and criticism of Russia's oppression. He brands Marxist doctrines as fallacious and believes that Communism has no place in a highly developed society such as ours.
- f. He fought with the Abraham Lincoln Brigade in the Spanish Civil War, risking death and suffering serious wounds, because of his hatred for Fascism. For the same reason—hatred of Hitler and Hitlerism—he volunteered in the U.S. Army before Pearl Harbor despite severe physical disability.
- g. He believes that the Cuban revolution gained its impetus through the peasants' hopes for agrarian reform, but that the Castro government now has slipped into the Soviet orbit. He believes this to be a calamity for the people of Cuba, of the United States and of the entire Western Hemisphere."

From all the evidence at hand I have determined to my satisfaction that these findings of the committee are valid. I therefore wish specifically to say that to the very best of our knowledge, after most careful investigation, the professor involved is a loyal American, is not a Communist or subversive person as defined by the Pennsylvania Loyalty Act of 1951, is an able and objective scholar, and is an inspiring teacher who does not teach doctrines subversive to our way of life.

This decision was made with an acute awareness of its implications. In making this decision, I consulted with a number of persons who could apprise the circumstances equitably. One person is one of the country's most respected attorneys and chairman of the board of trustees of one of our largest and finest universities. Another is president of an equally outstanding university. A third is a distinguished historian and a past president of the American Historical Association, the professor's own national professional society. Members of the University Senate's Committee on Academic Freedom and Tenure and members of the Senate Council also were consulted. It was the unanimous agreement of all these persons that the decision was just, fair and principled.

We must remind ourselves that in analyzing the facts of this case

we had to evaluate an epoch a quarter of a century past. Hitler and Mussolini, first with Franco then with Tojo, were threatening the world through their lust for power. In those days Russia was officially presumed to be our friend and soon an ally, and the brutality and deceitfulness of international communism, while suspected by many of us, had not yet become apparent to millions of people. Unless we constantly remind ourselves of these conditions, we can err seriously in judging the actions and motives of persons who took part in the epoch.

Today, one would wish for a society in which he need not be concerned about his neighbor's views. Let the neighbor go his own way. But this is no longer possible. Our society lives in an atmosphere disturbed on the one hand by those espousing subversive doctrines of Communist origin, and on the other hand by those whose anxieties over Communism would deprive us of our traditional liberties.

I would respectfully suggest that those who publicly try by innuendo and condemn by inference are not different from those who purge without a hearing; that intemperance and absolutism are equally dangerous whether they arise from within or without; that vigilance like Janus must look in both directions.

To conclude, I wish to emphasize again that in the matter of allegations concerning the professor involved, our evidence leads us to decide that no action on the part of the University is warranted, and none shall be forthcoming.

Finally, as an institution we have pledged our opposition to the threats of international communism and we have promised ourselves to refuse it our fellowship. This is our unequivocal position. Let no one mistake it.

A Post-Baccalaureate Program in General Education

JOSEPH S. BUTTERWECK

Reflections on an experimental program in teacher preparation founded on the belief that liberal education should be education for democratic action

We have now completed five years of our General Education Program for Teachers. The early years of any new curriculum are likely to be the most exciting and challenging. If the program is really new, if it has unique qualities, it is likely to stimulate the best effort of those involved. After the first five years there is always the danger that a new orthodoxy has been created and that those in charge will settle down to a repetition of what was developed during the pioneering years.

We claim that in 1954 we began with a unique idea. We developed this idea into an educational program. We introduced this program into an institution of higher learning. In the expectation that it would result in a better general education course than one conducted by only one person in charge, we developed courses conducted by a staff of three professors with different backgrounds and from different colleges.

Progress has been made. We have a better program than we had in 1955, but we still have a long way to go before we have something that is specific enough to be evaluated by measuring either the student's change of behavior or the extent to which he has acquired basic concepts essential for intelligent participation in a democratic form of society.

If we assume that what we began with and what has been well received by students and faculty alike is now a fully developed program that will continue to live if well administered, we are dangerously wrong. If this is our assumption, the program will live only a few years longer and will, during this time, gradually de-

teriorate into an academic course of the traditional kind. Unless the program has been understood by all parties responsible for its success as an idea with excellent potentiality, but still nascent, it will be administered as though it were a program similar to others.

Our Aim

We began with the idea that teachers in their post-baccalaureate professional growth need more than an improvement and refinement of their classroom teaching techniques. However important this increase in teaching competency is, it cannot best be insured by more professional courses that lead to a graduate degree and are given by a college or university. The responsibility for this professional growth belongs primarily to the local school district and can best be provided as in-service education on the scene.

Teachers, both elementary and secondary, because of the nature of their daily activities, necessarily focus their attention on the needs of immature young people. This takes their attention away from those larger movements that pass in a kaleidoscopic manner outside the four walls of the school, and which so modify the world that in less than a generation it is quite different from the world in which the teacher lived when he was a college student.

The assumption is erroneous, therefore, that the education, no matter how good and liberal, received by the teacher in his youth suffices to carry him through adult life.

We assumed when we began this experiment that the teacher, more than any other person, must have an organized periodic contact with an environment where changes are brought to his attention and where he has an opportunity to come to grips with their nature and to develop convictions regarding their solution.

This cannot be left to chance. The democratic world has been too complacent about the perpetuation of those values which we associate with democracy as a way of life. We have been too hesitant about the indoctrination of our youth. We have assumed too frequently that the tenets of democracy are absorbed as a result of living in a society which supposedly practices these principles. The philosophy of laissez-faire so generally associated with democratic life has much too often invaded academic circles and made us content with the thought that through learning history or social studies the student acquires concepts that he can translate into daily living. Although experimental evidence denies the validity of this claim, we tenaciously and blindly keep on equating hope with reality.

Although competition with a rapidly developing authoritarian world should not control our way of life, we cannot help expressing fear when we see the way of life of the Western world challenged. Being on the defensive has alerted us to the need to reconsider the kind of education that we provide for our children and our youth. This also brings our program of teacher education into focus.

Much soul searching is in progress among those interested in the education of teachers. Much revamping of existing programs of teacher education is under way. These programs are all based on the assumption that the acquisition of knowledge associated with teaching, transmitted in a school of education or its equivalent and satisfying the time-honored state certification requirements, will produce the best teacher.

Such attention as is given to general education is usually focused on the conventional academic courses taught in a liberal arts college. Those who advocate more academic credits beyond the baccalaureate years generally think of additional courses in the student's major field of undergraduate specialization.

In this program, we have embarked on a different concept of general education. We believe that the world in which the student lives is fraught with problems that must be explored and for which solutions must be sought. We believe further that the content and the spirit of the study of the liberal arts hold the key to such solutions. But we also contend that the efficacy of the content as a solution of contemporary problems can be better assured if it is examined by those colleagues of the college professor who have been trained in other disciplines or who can see a particular problem through different eyes.

Our faith is in an ultimate change in behavior of the student to be brought about by exposing him to a staff of well educated professors who either differ in their solution of a particular problem or can reveal facets of it not seen by the one who is a specialist in the discipline most involved in its solution.

We believe that if education is intended to influence the behavior of the layman, the intelligent layman who is a scholar in an allied field of knowledge should be a party to the education of the student.

We ought to add that at no time were we concerned primarily with providing content that was directly designed to improve the teachers' classroom competence. Nor were we trying to include content that the teacher should or could use in his teaching. The thesis on which we operate was and is that *if we succeed in creating a more*

curious individual, a more critical thinker and a broader person, we shall at the same time be creating a better teacher.

Any evaluation of our program must be undertaken on the assumption that this thesis is valid.

Unsolved Problems

There is a good deal of unfinished business in connection with the refinement of the program.

1) Unless the number of registrants is sufficient to support the cost, the program is not solvent.

2) As we seek economic solvency we are faced with the question of staff—number and kind. Such a program needs the participation of the best, the most creative and the best informed faculty members available. These cost money.

If we try to reduce the number of faculty members assigned to a staff, to what extent are we weakening or even destroying the uniqueness of the program? What is the advantage of using in each staff faculty members from different institutions rather than only those who are faculty members of the institution on whose campus the course is given? How important is it to the success of the program to change the composition of the staff of a course periodically in order to help keep the discussion among its members vital?

3) Can essentially the same method be used in the conduct of each of the four courses that make up our program—humanities, social science, natural science, education? Or is the content of the course a factor that influences decidedly the manner in which the course is given?

At present the humanities course is conducted largely as a panel discussion among the three faculty members. The social science and the natural science courses are more likely to consist of a lecture followed by class discussion. The education course is conducted by a coordinator and visiting lecturers. Are these differences consonant with the differences in the content of each course?

To what extent is the method related to the student's familiarity with the content? The disparity in knowledge of the facts in the natural science course is likely to be greater than in the humanities or social science courses or in the education course. How much does this difference in disparity influence the method?

4) The most important and no doubt the most difficult of the unsolved problems is the evaluation of the student's growth. It is to

this that most of our attention must be directed if we hope to have this kind of general education widely accepted.

What should be the orientation of such a program? If the purpose of general education is to enable the intelligent layman to deal more effectively with those problems that arise out of daily conflict in human relations, then the student ought to have a body of concepts or insights broad enough and yet also specific enough to use when he is confronted with such problems. What are such problems that exist today and are likely to occur from time to time?

Needed Research: One Approach

During the last year I read many articles in current periodicals. I selected for brief annotating those that seemed to have more than transient value. Then I filled these annotations under one of four categories—humanities, social science, natural science, and education. I used as my criterion for this organization the pertinence that the article might have to a discussion in one of the four courses.

Fifty such articles fall under the caption of social science. Let me cite a few:

1. "Urgent Query: Why Do We Lack Statesmen" by Henry Steele Commager
2. "Where Democracy Doesn't Work—Yet" by Erskine Childers
3. "Three Basic Trends of Our Times" by Pitirim Sorokin
4. "South Africa's Racial Nightmare" by John S. Galbraith
5. "The Small Stockholder's Share in Industry" by Victor Perlo

These five are found in *The New York Times*, *Harper's*, *Main Currents*, *South Atlantic Quarterly*, and *The American Economic Review*, respectively.

I then raised the question: What particular concept, insight or social science background should the layman have in order to read these articles critically?

The first, "Why Do We Lack Statesmen?" deals with the quality of leadership. This might be listed as a concept in psychology. Six of my fifty articles require the use of similar knowledge.

The second, "Where Democracy Doesn't Work—Yet," deals with understanding of the basic tenets of democracy. Eight of the fifty fall in this category.

The third, "Three Basic Trends of Our Times," deals with the cultural development of a people. I found only one of the fifty articles that requires knowledge of cultural development.

The fourth, "South Africa's Racial Nightmare," might be classified as concerned mainly with the application of the concept of co-operation versus competition. Three of the articles are of this type.

The fifth, "The Small Stockholder's Share in Industry," requires an understanding of the concept of wealth. Four of the fifty articles require such an insight.

The fifty articles could be regarded as requiring fourteen different kinds of insight, all related to the social sciences. *Mine is the layman's interpretation of a concept or insight.* Some of the fourteen no doubt overlap, so that with further study they might be reduced in number. If, on the other hand, not fifty but twice fifty or ten times fifty articles were used as the sample, a larger number of such concepts would no doubt emerge.

The point I want to emphasize is that until a similar study of current problems is made on a more extensive scale, we do not have a body of knowledge that can be defended as meeting the criteria for a general education course in the social sciences: namely, to enable the intelligent layman to deal more effectively with those contemporary problems that arise out of conflict in human relations.

What is said here of the social science course applies equally to the humanities, the natural science and the education courses.

The above suggestions are merely illustrative of the kind of research that might help us to a satisfactory answer.

Another Approach

Or we might approach the problem from another angle. We have defined general education for a democratic society as the kind of education that will equip the individual with those concepts and abilities that enable him to deal intelligently with contemporary problems.

What are the problems of today?

I have isolated ten that seemed important to me.

1. Is reason or logic an element of the scientific method or is science concerned only with phenomena that are observable and possible to quantify?

2. Is democracy an ultimate end to be sought for all human relations or is its attainment as a way of life conditioned by factors inherent in the situation?

3. Is wealth a condition measurable quantitatively or is it influenced by intangibles that defy mathematical equating?

4. Is faith in the unknown an essential element of human nature or is it merely an expression of lack of faith in man's intellectual abilities?
5. Are the arts merely a reflection of the nature of society at a particular time or are they a figment of creative genius that influences the nature of society?
6. Is the control of action through reason the primary end of all educational endeavor or is the conditioning of emotional behavior a necessary ingredient of education?
7. Can an individual rise to a position of power while being influenced by principles of morality or must he compromise ethical principles in order to attain power?
8. Is great size antithetical to grass-roots participation in democratic action and must the individual necessarily sacrifice active participation in policy making as he becomes a member of an increasingly larger social unit?
9. Is intellectual maturity attained primarily through the process of orderly instruction by intellectual superiors or is it the result of the diffusion of knowledge gained by experience (real or vicarious) with peers?
10. Are the mores of a society determined entirely by environmental influences or are there traits inherent in a people which determine patterns of behavior in spite of daily contacts with the mores of others?

These are statements of problems that I assume represent areas in which choices must be made by the intelligent layman of today. They are not concepts, but the choice that an individual makes in each of these problem areas may become a concept. It then represents a guiding principle that he has accepted as a basis for action when a decision must be made.

Let us take the fourth problem area as an example: Is faith in the unknown an essential element of human nature or is it merely an expression of lack of faith in man's intellectual abilities?

We are now confronted by a teaching problem. Shall we assume that one point of view is correct and that this point of view is to become the result of our teaching? Or shall we assume that our job as teacher is merely to reveal the contrasting points of view and let the student make his choice? What are the concepts involved in this question?

Concept #1—There is no Higher Being. Faith in a God or a

Creator is merely evidence of man's intellectual shortcoming. Everything that happens could be explained in physical terms if we had suitable means of analysis. The power of healing attributed to Him for whom the Christian religion was named is without proof. Although some individuals today are supposed to be possessed of similar power, this is merely the imagination of the gullible, or a fable designed as a soporific for the naive, the uneducated and the unintelligent.

Either we discredit this point of view and are satisfied with its rejection and thereby also the rejection of individuals who hold it, or we will say that there may be some truth to it and we shall apply such research methods as are available to test its truth. We must however, continue to insist that until it has been proved by sound research procedures we must be skeptical about its validity.

Concept #2—There is a Higher Being responsible for much that is beyond our ability to comprehend.

We are now introducing the metaphysical as a method of explaining an event. It does not mean that we will cease to look further for an answer, but it does mean that unless we find a physical cause we will not reject the concept. Perhaps such acts as healing, extra-sensory perception and the like would be explainable if we had adequate research instruments and methods, and we would encourage such research. But perhaps we shall ultimately be faced with the answer that these acts can be explained only by the acceptance of some Higher Being or Force that we shall have to recognize as a Creator.

Now we have accepted religion as a motivating force with which man must reckon. This also is a concept arising out of the original problem.

The Teaching Problem

In our teaching we are faced with the problem of organizing subject matter to be used in attaining the teaching objectives. The following alternatives present themselves:

1. Shall we attack the concept directly, making it the focus around which subject matter is built; or
2. Shall we deal with it indirectly by introducing situations involving these concepts but without highlighting them as ideas to be acquired.

Whatever organization is adopted, it must be evaluated. Then we ought to have the student declare his position and indicate the rationale for his commitments. *But commitments there should be.* It is not enough to assume that he may change his views as he gets more

experience and that therefore suspended judgment is more desirable.

Traditionally the objective of the liberal arts point of view, when controversial matters were dealt with, was to encourage suspended judgment. This has too often resulted in the attitude that the liberally educated person should be a man of thought and not a man of action. Judgment was suspended indefinitely.

Education in authoritarian countries takes the opposite position. One educated under such a system is expected to be without doubt. Its answer to problems is clear and direct. It leaves no doubt. It demands commitment.

In the struggle between two opposing ideologies—authoritarian and democratic—those espousing the democratic ideal must also be committed to a point of view that can be defended by action. They must have a conviction—a conviction born of thought, but still a conviction.

Conviction may change as new facts are discovered or new experiences are encountered. But at the moment of decision there must be a conviction based on knowledge at hand.

The open mind must be open to additional evidence, a possible change, but at a given time the individual must have an opinion, he must be able to take a position. Without conviction based on thought there is likely to be action born out of emotional identification. The Germans under Nazi rule acceded to anti-semitic pressures. When the iron hand of Hitler control was removed they went through a period of soul searching. They convinced themselves that the intellectuals among them, the liberally educated, did not approve of their previous acts. They were anxious to free themselves of the burden of guilt.

Would the American intellectual, the liberally educated, have been any less responsible for reversion to authoritarian control under a Huey Long or a McCarthy had it not been for the freedom of speech and of the press, which had become an integral force in our culture?

Until higher education in this country aims to provide a liberal education that encourages not only thought, but thought accompanied by conviction, it cannot in the long run expect to compete with the effort to control men's minds—an effort that is becoming an increasing threat in the world of the next half century.

A Modest Proposal

FREDERIC W. NESS

In which it is suggested that a seminar program for gifted students, centering on the light that the techniques of one discipline can throw on others, may broaden the vision of the entire campus

Addison once quoted an old "Fellow of the College" as complaining: "We are always doing something for Posterity, but I would fain see Posterity do something for us."

This is by way of saying that as one reviews the myriad programs for the gifted student—all very good (or at least very ingenious), all probably necessary, and most of them definitely belated—he begins to feel an Addisonian itch for the time when the gifted student will start doing something for him. It is somewhat in this spirit that yet another proposal, a modest one, is advanced here for the student with the right set of academic and/or personal attributes. For, as will be explained at the close, this program has a potential benefit for the campus as a whole, student and faculty alike.

But first a few premises, since every academic structure, however insubstantial, should have some foundation. To begin with, if a proposal is to gain the approval of a faculty, let alone a grant from a foundation, it must have a title with a certain glitter. Partly for that reason the plan described in this modest proposal is entitled "The Sequential Seminar in Creative Development."

A second and more serious premise is that there is little *automatic* transfer of knowledge, skills or techniques in the whole educative process. While this concept may be at variance with earlier praxes, it has gained acceptance in the modern school of philosophers and psychologists in the theory of learning. Even some employers have been known to mutter at the inability of graduates of highly specialized programs to apply their knowledge to the new situations in which they may find themselves after a few years on the job.

Which leads to another premise: American undergraduate education is still too subject-matter oriented. A strong case can be made

for this view despite the fact that, after many years in the golden age of the integrated curriculum, we seem now to be moving slightly off this gold standard (*vide* Columbia College's recent change of academic pace). Departments still toe rigorously the subject-matter mark, and the innovator must walk warily in such sanctified precincts.

In fact, a vast majority of honors or independent-study programs represent, not a departure from, but an intensification of the subject-matter focus. Thus if there is indeed little or no automatic transfer, the special-opportunity programs contribute to the problem rather than to its resolution.

Still other relevant premises could be advanced, but this is intended as only a modest proposal, not a polemic. Unlike the lady who asked her friend to spare her the gist and get down to the details, we shall move now to the heart of the matter.

In the conviction (1) that the liberal arts are a methodology as well as a subject matter, (2) that the one supports the other in a properly conducted program, and (3) that it is possible to develop the ability to transfer knowledge and skills from one area to another (successful executives have been doing it for years despite their formal academic handicaps), the following proposal is offered for consideration.

A small group of freshmen will be selected for the experimental seminar at the end of their first semester—preferably a group of around fifteen. They will be selected not on the basis of grades alone, for too often the "A" student is merely the one with most skill in the art of faithful reproduction. Rather the students will be chosen from evidence, however tentative, of the kind of non-rigid thinking essential to the success of the Sequential Seminar.

The program for this group will be identical with that of the other students, with one exception. A three-credit seminar will replace a subject-matter course.

This first seminar, conducted during the spring semester, will be devoted to the techniques of findings, evaluating and organizing facts, and it will be conducted somewhat as follows. Each student will select a problem related to one of his subject-matter courses, the selection to be made with the concurrence of the instructor in that course and the director of the seminar. In examining the problem—let us assume it is a problem in biology—the student will be concerned primarily with the way in which the biologist ferrets out, weighs and then organizes the facts necessary to resolve the problem. (It is essential to re-emphasize that, in the entire process, the student will be working with both his instructor in biology and the director of the seminar.)

The student will meet regularly with his fellow "seminarians" to discuss the techniques involved in finding, evaluating and organizing his facts. The remainder of the group will have several interests in his progress. First they will examine his techniques as to their effectiveness. (Coincidentally, they will have a concern with how the biologist thinks.) Secondly, they will seek to discover which of these biological techniques, if any, could be applied to their own problem—which may be a problem in history, English, psychology and so forth. And finally they will be interested in how their own methodology might have been applicable or useful in their fellow's project. They might well, in this critical appraisal, suggest other approaches to the problem in biology which could more readily have produced better results.

Each student, of course, will have his turn or turns. Only experience with the program can determine whether the individual member of the seminar should work on a series of short projects or concentrate on one major problem for the entire semester. It is essential, however, that the total group have continuous opportunity to tune in on the various wave lengths upon which their fellows are operating. For only by this means will they receive exercise in the transfer of knowledge and techniques which is fundamental to the whole concept.

The Sequential Seminar presupposes that there are certain basic thought processes which can be both isolated and combined in the educative process. Thus the second seminar, scheduled for the first semester of the sophomore year, would build upon the previous one but would concentrate, say, upon the principles of quantitative reasoning. It may well involve the whole of what is commonly referred to as the "scientific method," although this may better be deferred for more extended treatment, depending upon the experience and judgment of the director of the seminar. The level at which the student meets his science requirement would be a consideration here.

It may be argued, of course, that quantitative reasoning or, for that matter, the scientific method has little relevance for the student whose interests are largely attuned to the humanities. Yet this is a narrow view. This writer's own doctoral dissertation was on one aspect of Shakespeare's dramas which happened to involve a substantial amount of quantitative judgment. And though the director may not himself see the full applicability to all fields, he will be working closely with the students' other instructors in devising appropriate topics for investigation.

As in the first seminar, the focus of attention of the group will be upon the interchange of critical apperceptions designed to make the

chemistry major think of the problems of his counterpart in economics and to see how techniques effective in the one field can be applied to the other. Moreover, the chemistry professor will be undergoing much the same experience, as his students in the seminar turn to him for guidance and inspiration.

A third semester of the seminar could be devoted to formal logic, both classical and modern, though this might with equal "logic" be the interest of the second seminar rather than of the third. In either case the techniques would be the same. In sequence the next seminar could be devoted to the more complex problem of the place of emotion in thought processes. Here too the practicability of application to the total subject-matter curriculum might be questioned. While admittedly the amount of emotion in a chemical experiment is minimal, an imaginative director of the seminar could probably stimulate his colleagues on the faculty to undertake some useful introspection.

But the college student does not live solely in a subject-matter world. This particular seminar could, for example, be devoted to problems of group dynamics, propaganda techniques and the like, which are an intimate part of the student's life regardless of his special areas of academic interest—and which, moreover, play a key role in his productive ability. An almost infinite range of useful problems could be explored in this context, involving relationships between and among the various subject fields on the academic, professional or social levels.

As implied earlier, the specific foci suggested for these separate but sequential seminars are by no means inclusive or exclusive. It is the basic technique that is important. But having said that, it is important to add that there is one categorical imperative in the entire concept. This is that one or two of the seminars be concerned with the creative process as such. For without this the "sequential student" will have missed the capstone of the whole structure. For of what use is learning a few tricks of reasoning, even of transferring acquired techniques from field to field, if the student is given no exercise in the magnificent free-wheeling of creative thought?

It has been said that true scientific research begins where experimentation ends. Or to approach this from another direction, many years ago the writer had the pleasure of studying harmony in a conservatory of music. At the end of five "sequential" semesters during which the class learned all the rules of this delightful mathematic, the instructor directed the class to put aside everything it had learned and to go out and harmonize. Thus, without espousing any particular technique of creativity, this modest proposal calls for at least one

seminar—preferably two—on imaginative reasoning, again utilizing the cross fertilization basic to the concept of the Sequential Seminar.

That this over-all proposal involves many tactical difficulties is quite obvious. Equally obvious is the fact that the greatest difficulty is not to find students able to perform effectively in the seminar situation, but rather to find the Renaissance mind capable of directing the program. Although such persons exist, they undoubtedly deserve a much higher salary than even the most opulent college can offer them. Thus a group approach may be the only practicable solution. That is, not one full-time instructor but two or three devoting part time to the task. That this raises additional complications is only too obvious to anyone who has experienced the organization of an intergrated curriculum of even the simplest dimension.

But there is a ray of hope. The "Sequential Seminar in Creative Development" contains a factor of built-in obsolescence. An even stronger term might be more appropriate: it contains the seeds of its own destruction. For implicit in the concept is the involvement, immediate as well as ultimate, of the total faculty. Which, hopefully, will mean the total student body as well. The instructor in sociology who has a "seminarian" asking advice on how principles of logic apply to a particular problem in his course will, if he is at all responsive, begin to raise similar questions with other students in his classes. In short, his teaching will, if it does not already, begin to reflect a conscious interest in how the sociologist thinks and in how the sociologist's methodology may have an applicability to the physicist narrowing over his test tube.

Thus—and this may be immodestly Utopian—the gifted student will become the agent for a new process of instruction which will provide the entire campus with more or less continuous exercise in the transfer of techniques and knowledge from one field to another.

Hic jacet.

Liberal Education for Women in Our Times

YU-KUANG CHU

Within the timeless traditions of liberal education, with the new emphases demanded by the needs of our times, says the author, two qualities above all must be cultivated in a woman—versatility and serenity

The essential purpose of a liberal education is to make an individual fully human and intellectually free. Originating as a set of studies worthy of a free man in Greek and Roman times, it has gone through a long evolution in nature and content as human knowledge has tremendously expanded, educational opportunity has been widely extended, and the line between "liberal" and utilitarian studies has become increasingly blurred. By common consent it stresses the understanding of one's cultural heritage as well as physical and social environment, the enlargement of one's sympathy with fellow men, the ability to express oneself articulately, and the liberation of one's mind from ignorance, bigotry, provincialism and other fetters, accompanied by a positive cultivation of critical thinking and intelligent appraisal of values in life.

This essence of liberal education is still valid today. We need to re-affirm this before we go on to say that liberal education must be re-interpreted for our times by relating it to the needs of the age. Just as Newtonian physics is not refuted but embraced in the broader framework of the new physics, the essence of liberal education must be developed into a larger concept with new accents or emphases.

I

Of these new accents there are at least four: science, study of the non-Western world, the fine arts and continuing education.

Science. The whole content of liberal education must be updated in accordance with the revolutionary findings of contemporary science

unfolding before our eyes in nuclear research, space exploration, experimental biology and technological change. Not only must science students master a larger store of scientific knowledge and more complicated methods of research: even non-science students have to attain a more advanced degree of scientific understanding than hitherto in order to be intelligent citizens. Perhaps more important than increasing the amount of time devoted to the study of science is the improvement of the teaching of it in college. In the last few years substantial improvements in science teaching have been introduced into the high school. In two or three years we shall be getting freshman students with upgraded preparation in science. Will our science courses be adequate for them?

To bridge the gap between scientists and humanists, as pointed out by C. P. Snow, the view of the world and man's place in it developed in humanistic studies must somehow be readjusted to accord with the view of nature built up by contemporary science.¹ This has been most clearly discussed by Bentley Glass.² The scholars of one "culture" must be much more conversant than they now are with what is happening in the other "culture" in order to communicate. On the college student level, the study of humanities by science majors presents less of a problem, for most colleges have made provision for it, but the study of science by non-science students presents challenging opportunities to create new ways of teaching science.

For general education purposes the student needs:

- (1) an understanding of some of the basic concepts of contemporary science, which are undergoing revolutionary change. Since the sciences are becoming increasingly interrelated, each student should have some study of both physical and biological sciences. It is hopeful to note that some physicists and chemists maintain that a properly combined course of physics and chemistry is better than separate introductory courses in the two disciplines, not only for non-science students but also for prospective majors in physics or chemistry.
- (2) an insight into how scientists arrive at truth—how the scientific method operates. This may be achieved in several ways. If the teaching of scientific concepts emphasizes not merely facts handed out authoritatively but how the facts are arrived at, then the student will see how a scientist's mind works. A laboratory course in a single science which, instead of prescribing "recipes," requires genuine experimental solution of problems will enable the student to experience the use of scientific method. Sometimes a course built on re-living "great experiments" in the history of science will produce this insight into scientific method.

- (3) a comprehension of the role of science in contemporary society and its impact upon American life. There is a whole range of new problems created by science and technology in the fields of politics, international relations, economics, and social and cultural life. Certain basic concepts in science as well as certain specific facts are essential to an intelligent discussion of these problems.
- (4) finally, for some students at least, a penetrative understanding of the nature of science and its relation to philosophy, religion and art. Science is an active search for hidden likenesses, in much the same spirit as an artist creates unity out of variety, argues J. Bronowski.³ A course on the philosophy of science would be fascinating to those fond of abstract thought, but the teacher must be equally conversant in science and philosophy.

(1) and (2) above are "true" science courses, (3) is really social science, and (4) philosophy.

Study of the Non-Western World. Liberal education in the West, having developed out of Western history and society, is deeply rooted in Western tradition. This is perfectly sound, but to have undergraduate education narrowly *confined* to Western tradition is to make it entirely inadequate for our times. Postwar developments on the world scene, with a leadership role thrust upon the U.S.A., have convinced many colleges of the practical necessity of educating college students in the affairs of the non-Western world (U.S.S.R., Asia, Middle East, Africa and Latin America). World affairs are now American affairs, and many domestic affairs of this country have worldwide significance. In the years ahead the United States will encounter fierce competition with the Soviet Union in exporting thousands upon thousands of trained persons to uncommitted nations to help develop their economy and society. If they are not to become "ugly Americans," they must understand the peoples and the problems of these countries. Educators who lean to this view are apt to stress the study of contemporary politics and economics of these nations and wide coverage of the non-Western world.

Other educators emphasize the liberal values in non-Western studies and the importance of studying the history and culture of a people significantly different from those of the West. They believe that such a study tends to reduce provincialism and ethnocentrism, sensitize students to different scales of values in different societies, open their eyes to the rich diversity of cultures in the world as well as the common humanity of man, arouse human empathy and consequent active concern for others, extend their code of ethics to human relations on a world level. For these liberal values the further

removed a foreign culture is from American culture, the better it serves as a vehicle of liberal education. These educators are inclined to encourage depth of study in one non-Western culture rather than a superficial survey of the entire non-Western world.

The two schools of thought need not be mutually exclusive. Indeed they may well be complementary. A balanced approach to the study of any culture or people should be encouraged, but the present writer definitely favors a depth study of one or two non-Western cultures by any one student, though the college may offer courses in as many of the non-Western areas as its resources permit. If the size of the student body of a college or the limits of its resources do not permit comprehensive coverage of the non-Western world in the curriculum, rotating appointments of Fulbright lecturers or other visiting scholars, covering a different area of the world each year, may be made.

One policy question in this field is: should there be a major in non-Western studies? The present writer's answer is an emphatic "no" for the following reasons. (1) It would be too specialized a field of study on the undergraduate level. It is a proper study for the graduate school. (2) Any study of foreign cultures or any extensive contact with non-Western peoples tends to produce to some extent a "cultural shock" in the American student. Psychologically and emotionally he needs a firm mooring in his own cultural tradition. (3) To understand the present-day affairs of the non-Western world, he needs, paradoxically, to have a clear understanding of Western tradition. After all, it is the dynamic social ideas of the West (nationalism, democracy, freedom, individualism, industrialism, rising economic expectations, communism, etc.) that have wrought havoc in Asia and Africa. If a student has no clear notion of how these ideas were born out of Western conditions, how they have developed and flowered into Western institutions, he will probably commit the fallacy of thinking that the Western way of life can be totally transplanted to Asian or African soil. The best combination for a student interested in Asian politics is to do thorough groundwork in Western political theories and institutions, *with attention to their concomitant societal forces*, and to take a few courses in Asian studies. This principle applies even to the humanities. A student interested in Asian art should be thoroughly trained in the principles and development of Western art *with attention to its ideological and social background*. Then he may take a course or two on Asian art. Only scholars thus trained can bridge the cultural gap between East

and West. (4) There are serious difficulties in the proper placement of graduates with an undergraduate major in non-Western studies. On the other hand, some non-Western study in addition to an ordinary major is an extra "feather in the cap" of a graduate in competition for employment. To sum up, non-Western studies in an undergraduate college should be an integral part of a liberal education but should not be the core of a major.

At the risk of seeming contradiction, however, the present writer would say that in the field of history there must be an opportunity, if not a requirement, for students to take world history which is not Europe-centered but truly global in its perspective. Also, the introduction of non-Western materials into the curriculum must go beyond a number of "area" cultures or foreign language and literature offerings. They must be brought into practically all disciplines by almost the entire faculty for comparative study purposes. A good way to accomplish this is for each faculty member to become actively interested in some one foreign (and particularly non-Western) culture in his own readings, travels and so on. If faculty members diversify their foreign interests, the student body as a whole will be exposed to a very wide coverage.

The study of foreign cultures highlights the importance of the learning of foreign languages. It is impossible to understand a culture intimately unless one can read, speak and dream in its language. Many American students have an emotional block against learning foreign languages. They must be helped to restore their confidence in mastering a foreign tongue. It is suggested that colleges make a serious effort to offer at least one non-Western language and work for a greater diversification of foreign language study.

The Fine Arts. Although music was one of the original "seven liberal arts," liberal education on the college level has not emphasized the fine arts as an integral part of general education for all students. Sometimes a course on the appreciation of music or art is included in general education, but it does not require performance. That experience in performance (whether good, bad or indifferent) would heighten appreciation seems beyond question, and yet colleges continue to think that facilities for teaching performance in the arts are reserved for the specialized student.

The fine arts will certainly play an increasingly important role in American life. As automation spreads through industry and business, the work week will probably be shortened without decreasing wages, in order to keep everybody employed. Sooner than we

expect, people will have a 32-hour work week with at least sixty hours of leisure in the week. What should be done with so much leisure time? It is certain that many people will use it to attend concerts and the theatre, tour museums and learn the fine arts as hobbies and outlets of individual expression. If one of the goals of a liberal education is to gain facility in the creative expression of ideas and feelings through language, native or foreign, why not also through non-language media such as art, music, dramatic performance and the dance? That every college student should be given some opportunity to experience performance in one or more of these arts seems a highly reasonable demand.

Another objective in the field of the fine arts is to help the student see the unity of the arts in underlying principles and the many interesting combinations of arts, which give rise to new forms, such as music and dancing in ballet, music and drama in "musicals," art and landscape gardening in Japan, music and painting in Indian miniatures. Somehow education in the fine arts has peculiar importance to women, not only because they are supposed to be "natural" to women but also because it is the most effective way to bring art into every home and thus raise the level of cultural taste of all the people.

Continuing Education. In view of the current explosion of knowledge, the dynamic character of American society and economy, the rapidly changing world scene and the uncertainties of personal life, a liberal education adequate for our times must free itself from an obsession with mere teaching of subject matter and shift its emphasis to the development in the student of an ability to educate himself and to continue to do so after his college years. Hence the recent emphasis in some colleges on independent study, not only for superior students but for *all* students. The creation of an educational momentum that will carry the student through life is infinitely more important than the imparting of a given body of knowledge no matter how valuable it may be at the time.

It may well be true that qualities which make for continuing education must be developed in connection with thorough and exact scholarship in a particular field, but the dominant and conscious aim for the student as well as for the professor is not just to master the subject but to gain an insight into how a scholar works, to build abiding interests, to develop certain habits of and attitudes towards scholarly work, and to catch the excitement of learning. He must realize that much of what is learned in college will be outdated

or forgotten in just a few years after graduation, and so he must be continuously educating himself on his own to live as a liberally educated person and to advance professionally in whatever field he has chosen.

Continuing education is of particular significance to women. An emerging pattern of life among college-educated women is to work a few years after graduation, before or even after marriage, spend the next fifteen years or so in raising a family, often along with part-time work or community service, and then return to full-time employment outside the home after the children have grown up. These rather sharply defined stages of life call for considerable readjustments on the part of the woman, which will be greatly facilitated by her capacity for continuing education.

II

We have been discussing four new accents of a liberal education for the sixties. They all have to do with general education for all students irrespective of their specialized interests. To some people, general education is synonymous with liberal education, but it is only a part of the latter. General education, in the nature of the case, means distribution and breadth of learning, but a liberal education must include some experience in depth of scholarship. Only thus can a student learn to master the skills and tools of a discipline, gain some insight into the complexity of knowledge, experience the exhilaration of pursuing a line of study to its logical conclusion and feel the sheer joy of intellectual life or creative work.

For this purpose liberal arts colleges provide for a field of concentration. If this concentration is not in a "liberal arts" subject but in a professional or technical field, then some would regard it as falling outside the pale of liberal education though they may admit its usefulness to the students electing it. To other people, the present writer among them, the persistent disparagement of specialized or professional training, in our age of specialization, seems unreasonable. While there is a tendency to postpone professional training to the graduate school in the case of men, there are valid reasons for including such training in undergraduate education for women. Women are getting married at a younger age and many naturally want to complete their formal education at the baccalaureate. Newcomer has pointed out that in recent decades the proportion of college women who have continued their education to the point of obtaining higher degrees has not only been much smaller than the proportion of col-

lege men but has actually declined.⁴ Can professional and specialized concentrations in the undergraduate college curriculum be placed on a par with those of liberal arts? The next section of this paper will try to subsume these two kinds of concentrations under a unifying point of view.

In addition to general education and depth of learning, there is still a third area in a liberal education, namely "individualized" education. Liberal education is focused on the development of the individual, though we hope he will be socially oriented. But general education is based on the common requirements of all students, and depth of learning is charted according to the inherent demands of the subject matter of the area of concentration. Neither takes care adequately of the individual interests and needs of a particular student. So there must be a third area in a liberal education to provide for individual variations. This means an efficient system of counseling; facilities for diagnosis of talents, aptitudes, interests and needs; possibility in the curriculum for free electives in widely separated areas; tutorials, reading courses, independent study with no prescribed content; provision for students to get what they need elsewhere if the college does not offer it, and so forth. No combination of studies is bizarre; it has to be considered from the viewpoint of the student's goal.

To recapitulate, the three components of a liberal education are general education, depth of learning, and "individualized" education. As the quality of high school education improves, the time devoted to general education may be reduced. "Individualized" education may be in for increased emphasis.

III

The very qualities of mind and personality that a liberal education should foster call for individual initiative and self-directed responsibility. Unless college goals are translated into student goals, educational efforts will come to naught or achieve very little. The central problem of a liberal education is student motivation. Without proper motivation, new ways of teaching, such as honors work, independent study and so on, cannot succeed. Integrated courses cannot guarantee integration of knowledge unless the student has an integrating point of view born of a motivated frame of mind. Unity of knowledge and action is often exalted, but why is it that the career-motivated student achieves this more often than academically minded students? For various reasons college enrolment will steeply increase in the com-

ing decade. A large number of students may have no motivation other than social reason for coming to college. Unless we can arouse them to active intellectual motivation, there will be an awful dead weight to carry along in college teaching and the problem of "drop-outs" will become even worse than at present. If a liberal education is to serve the needs of women in an emerging pattern of life (work—marriage and family—re-entry into work), immediate and long-range motivation are both necessary. The importance of motivation cannot be overemphasized.

The career motive is one powerful form of motivation, and it is certainly not confined to students in the professional or technical fields. A student of history intending to become a college teacher of history has a career motive. A student studying chemistry in preparation for the study of medicine is highly career-motivated. It is true that there are fewer or less strongly career-motivated students in the liberal arts departments, but the career motive as a vehicle of liberal education can be exploited to a much greater extent than is usually the case. The teaching of a professional subject may become "liberalized," if (1) it draws upon various academic subjects for foundational material and its relations to other subjects are clearly perceived by the student; (2) the relations of the profession to American life are explicitly discussed (e.g., education in American culture, business and American culture, physical education and health in American culture, the theatre in American culture); (3) the teaching emphasizes intellectual principles and concepts rather than "recipes" or minutiae of "method"; (4) the time devoted to the strictly technical aspects or mechanical skills be reduced to a minimum consistent with professional efficiency. In addition, if the ethos of the college makes liberal values dominant in student culture, so that students will enthusiastically attend lectures, concerts, dramas, exhibitions, and if the college arranges frequent confrontations of professional students with liberal arts students in mixed dormitories, clubs, interdepartmental seminars, etc., then there can be no objection to concentration in a professional field *as an integral part of a liberal education*. After all, there are often some technical courses and a good deal of professionalism in the liberal arts departments themselves.

Professional education has been regarded as specialized. The specialized character of these fields is not so much derived from the specialized nature of subject matter taught as from the fact that the students in these fields generally have an early specialized interest

whereas most liberal arts students develop a specialized interest later. The specialization lies in the motivation of the student rather than in the subject matter. So far as subject matter is concerned, it is difficult to see how economics is less specialized than business or how music is more specialized than physics. Whatever valid distinction there may be lies in the fact that our incoming students fall into the two categories of early specialized interest and generalized interest at the time of entrance into college. Both types of students are found in both "specialized" and liberal arts areas. Both must be provided for in the curriculum.

After all is said about subsuming the two kinds of concentrations under the unifying point of view of student motivation, there remains a hard nut to crack. It is all very well to "liberalize" the teaching of a professional subject as much as possible, but it must also produce in the graduate a degree of technical competence meeting the standard of the profession involved. This often requires a lot of time. Perhaps a solution of this problem lies in requiring considerable summer study or even adding a fifth year to the programs of certain fields of study. Another possibility is that students in these fields will devote much of the time set aside for "individualized" education to acquisition of a high degree of technical competence as one of their individual needs.

IV

We have been discussing the use of the career motive in liberal education. For students who are not thus motivated, as well as for those who are, we must develop a wide variety of ways to fire the imagination and to create an intense motivation for learning. Examples are provision for acceleration, independent study, appropriate use of teaching machines whereby the student can clearly see progress in learning, work-study programs, field study, overseas study or study at another institution in the U. S. as an integral part of our college program, graduation on the basis of demonstrated achievement rather than accumulated credits, improved student counseling, and various ways of arousing an active concern for others, a spirit of service and a sense of dedication.

A college that can continuously devise and experiment with new and effective ways of motivating students will thereby make an important contribution to the central problem of student motivation in liberal education. Not only must the college try to motivate its

students, but the students themselves must realize the importance of motivation and gain an insight into how it works and thus become self-motivated. Only a self-motivated person is capable of continuing education. A research center might well be established to study continuously and scientifically the problem of student motivation and to appraise the results of various efforts at motivation in college education and the subsequent effects of motivation in life after the college years. Such continuous research would in itself keep the whole faculty of the college alert to the problem of motivation and the students aware of its importance. It should be possible for the exceptionally bright or the early specialized to get satisfaction even in the freshman year, as well as for the ordinary student with no initial specialized interest to be challenged and aroused to a high level of motivation, whether in the sense of pure intellectual drive or social dedication.

V

The discussion so far applies to liberal education of both women and men. Are there any distinctive features in the education of women? This is a controversial question. Affirmative answers are perhaps more often advanced by men, whereas most women educators firmly believe that women can equally well master any subject or work in any profession that men can. We would begin by saying that there are no subjects or professions inherently feminine. Men have begun to take home economics courses and have invaded the field of nursing. Women are entering all sorts of occupations hitherto dominated by men. So if there are any differences between education for women and education for men, we shall have to look for them in qualities of personality.

Because of the ways of present-day society a woman's life is characterized by more uncertainties than a man's. If a man sees a girl he likes, he courts her, and if he is lucky, he will marry her. When he has made a definite choice of occupation, he organizes his energies around it, both in his student days and after college. If he makes a proper effort, he is reasonably sure that he can get the occupation he wants. On the other hand, a young woman must wait to be courted, proposed to and married. She does not know who will be coming her way. Child-bearing and rearing involve a host of uncertainties. If she chooses to work outside the home, she will normally have to work wherever her husband's work is located and may have

to take up a kind of work not directly related to her previous study. She cannot make her plans independently of her husband's. In times of economic recession a woman is probably less secure in her tenure of a job, except in some occupations where women are strongly entrenched. Finally, actuarial statistics indicate that a woman will probably outlive her husband and so will have to face alone another period of uncertainty after having played for many years a complementary role to her husband.

If there is one quality of personality that is more important for women than for men, it is perhaps versatility and flexibility. This is an attitude of mind and probably cannot be taught in courses. It certainly cannot be acquired by trying to be a "jack of all trades" or avoiding specialization. It does mean that, when a woman undertakes specialized study, she must be able to see its many relations to other subjects or other professions and also to learn the general ways of approaching any specialized study, so that she can if necessary shift her interest later on to another field more smoothly. A liberal education is the best preparation for an uncertain future, but what is more important is that she must have an insight into the meaning of versatility and flexibility.

Secondly, a woman is more deeply enmeshed in human relationships than a man, and perhaps that is why women take greater interest in people. Her success as wife, worker (if employed outside the home), volunteer in numerous causes, depends on her delicate handling of human relationships in many different directions at once. Anything that goes wrong in these relationships disturbs her intensely. The emotional strain placed upon a woman who tries simultaneously to manage a home, to hold down a paid job, and to be active in community affairs must be terrific. In the midst of a hurly-burly life she needs to maintain her personal integrity and a sense of serenity. Anne Morrow Lindbergh, in her book *Gift of the Sea*, discusses this need eloquently. Again, this quality of personality cannot be taught by academic instruction, but it may be developed by practice in certain "arts of personal living." While Oriental people are probably no more serene in actual fact than people in industrial societies, oriental philosophies have always stressed the importance of mental and spiritual serenity as an ideal. It seems that people in the East have striven harder for this particular ideal and have developed a range of skills and arts the practice of which tends to lessen tension and frustration and to promote serenity and peace of mind. But this is a sufficient topic for a separate discussion.

Conclusion

The essence of liberal education is as sound and valid today as it has ever been, but to meet the new needs of our times it must acquire four new accents, namely, keeping up with contemporary science, inclusion of some non-Western study, emphasis on the fine arts in general education, and developing the capacity for continuing education. The three components of a liberal education are general education, an experience in depth of learning, and "individualized education." The central problem in liberal education is student motivation. The career motive is a powerful incentive which should be exploited as a vehicle of liberal education. But there are also a great many other ways to arouse strong motivation. Making a significant contribution to the problem of student motivation in college, through research, experimentation and ingenious ways to stimulate motives for learning, could be the most important task in a liberal arts college. Finally, education for women, whether in a women's college or in a coeducational college or in co-ordinate colleges, should stress two qualities of personality—versatility and serenity—which though desirable in anyone's life are perhaps more imperative in a woman.

¹ C. P. Snow, *The Two Cultures and the Scientific Revolution*

² H. Bentley Glass, *Science and Liberal Education*, chapter II

³ Jacob Bronowski, *Science and Human Values*, pp. 30-31

⁴ Mabel Newcomer, *A Century of Higher Education for American Women*, pp. 240 and 247

“ . . . To Do a Better Job”

VICTOR A. RAPPORT

Liberal education on traditional American lines may be hopelessly ineffective for students from emerging countries. The author proposes experimentation with courses designed to meet their special needs.

The Ford Foundation report entitled *The University and World Affairs*, which was the latest news at the January 1961 meeting of the Association of American Colleges but which, by now, every college and university administrator must have read, says this on the subject of foreign students:

It is no longer possible for universities to regard their foreign students (and particularly those from outside North American and Western Europe) as no different from American students. Curricular offerings must often be redesigned to meet the distinctive needs of foreign students and the nations from which they come.¹

The report goes on:

Many of them [the foreign students] are the elite representatives of their societies, especially of the most modern elements, and will be called to high responsibilities in their own countries . . . among the growing numbers of students from Asia and Africa, now more than half of all foreign students, are many who face major difficulties. . . . Yet the traditional educational program provided for American and European students is rooted in American conditions, and some revision is often required to meet the needs of others.”²

But what revision?

The basic concern for educating those who come from a foreign and underdeveloped country should lie in matters which the necessarily Western-oriented liberal arts curriculum would consider almost exclusively non-academic. These are:

1. That two thirds of the population of the world is hungry. That is, the daily diets of these people are far below normal subsistence requirements.
2. The majority of the hungry two thirds comprises the population of so-

called underdeveloped (or, to use the now current word, "emerging") countries. Yet the productivity of those countries and their governmental organizations are geared to foreign consumption and control rather than to their own consumption and control.

With our Western-oriented minds, we are often oblivious to the following facts. First, in many emerging countries large masses of people may be dislodged from agricultural areas, where food is produced, and lodged in urban centers without the necessarily concomitant reorganization of modes of transportation to bring the required food to these urban centers for the purpose of feeding the dislocated people. Secondly, the returns obtained from the export of industrial products are most often used to promote further industrial expansion, save where the expansion of agriculture contributes directly to swelling the foreign market. This process contributes to a further imbalance in distribution that is prejudicial to the health and welfare of the dislocated masses. Examples of this may be found in the fate of Congo uranium miners, who were moved to Katanga, in the South African diamond, gold and lobster industries, in the Malayan and Liberian rubber industries, and in Saudi Arabian oil.

What is liberal education for our own students, as well as for students from most European countries, may be fatal to the future of students from underdeveloped countries. Any future leader of an emerging country who does not have an understanding and appreciation of agriculture and agricultural sciences, of forestry, of conservation—any future leader who does not appreciate what these basic matters mean to the health, domestic economy and welfare of his people—will be, to that degree, ill-equipped to lead in a country that is moving from the present into the future. We need to design an education for these students which encompasses a knowledge and appreciation of the relevance and importance of agriculture and its allied arts and sciences as the emerging nations move toward full political development.³

Some African students who come here choose a Negro college in preference to other schools. Why do they make this selection? One of the reasons advanced in *African Students in the United States*, a volume published by the Committee on Educational Interchange Policy, is:

In some fields Negro institutions offer courses and points of view that are particularly well suited to the needs of African students. Local conditions are closer to those in Africa. This is especially important in agriculture and vocational fields. Foreign agricultural economists from Asia, for example, comment favorably on courses studied at institutions in the south-

ern part of the United States "where many of the crops, cropping patterns, farm organization and institutions are more similar to those of Asia."⁴

In another place in the same article the following statement is made:

Many of those most concerned with economic and social development in Africa recommend that priorities be established among different fields, and students channeled into them. If Africans study fields in which there is lesser need and neglect those in which there is a greater need, they point out, serious manpower problems may arise.⁵

The plan that follows will, it is believed, meet the indicated needs and provide solutions to the questions that have been posed.

It is assumed that any college or university can cope with the needs of foreign students in political science and public administration. But these students need training, among other matters, in agriculture, forestry, conservation, elementary and secondary education, regional planning, veterinary medicine. For these other fields, it is recommended that a college or university lacking any one of the areas arrange to send students from underdeveloped countries for one year to a nearby university or college which teaches in these areas. The junior year—or the sophomore year—might profitably be spent by the student gaining familiarity with the "language" of these fields. Not that the student will be a practitioner when he returns to his native land. This proposal is designed merely to make him a more able servant of his country in the "high responsibilities" to which he is expected to be called. It is intended to furnish these students with areas of knowledge necessary to them which they would not find otherwise in the traditional liberal arts program.

Without any attempt to pose as an expert in the subject, the following fields of study are proposed as suitable to provide some basic understanding:

1. Introduction to soil science: origin, formation, composition and classification of soils; land judging, interpretation of soil maps; principles of soil management; fundamentals of soil fertility.
2. Conservation of natural resources: broad treatment of land, water, forests and wildlife; formation of conservation practices; organization of agencies dealing with basic natural resources.
3. Forest management: importance and use of forests; forest management with basic information on fire protection, planting, selective cutting.
4. Veterinary medicine: common ailments of livestock, with emphasis on preventative medicine; effect on humans of transmissible animal diseases.

To the above might be added courses in the philosophy of ele-

mentary and secondary education, the organization of educational systems, standards for selection of teachers, and the administration of elementary and secondary education. Another course that might find a place would be one in regional planning, with emphasis on land use, relation of rural to village areas, planning the major metropolis, and construction of networks of roads and other forms of communication. Similarly, there might be a course in public health, covering principles of disease, sanitation, sewage control, personal hygiene, control of contagion, etc.

The taking of courses listed above, or better ones constructed by one more skilled in the fields, would serve to answer one paragraph in a *Summary of a Discussion* published by the trustees of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (1959-1960 Annual Report) from which the title of this article is drawn. That paragraph reads:

1. No agency or institution, American or foreign, should send foreign students to the United States without careful planning. There can be no assurance that anything beneficial will come of it unless it is intelligently done. We should not necessarily seek to bring more foreign students to these shores. *We should seek to do a better job with those who come.*

Let it be said, if it is not already clear, that it is the author's contention that holding foreign students, especially those from emerging countries, within the limits of our normal liberal arts subjects results in only half-educating these men and women. The liberal arts colleges of our nation need to take new, bold and imaginative steps to break the shackles which have sat lightly on our own students, but which bind students from underdeveloped countries to a condition of returning with an inadequate knowledge of the problems they will be forced to face.

An interview with a dean of agriculture at a land-grant college indicates that this plan would be acceptable. Colleges of agriculture, of forestry, of veterinary medicine and of education (where that discipline is missing in a liberal arts college) might, and probably would, welcome such students into programs specifically designed to acquaint them with fundamental concepts. This plan would require these colleges to modify their present offerings, but where there is need and good will nothing is too difficult.

The dean of a school of business administration which accepts students after two years of preliminary liberal arts training says that his school would welcome foreign students who had one year of

normal liberal arts plus an additional year—their sophomore year—of agriculture, forestry, conservation, etc.

The question of how these courses would be evaluated when the student returns to the institution from which he expects to get a degree will naturally arise. What provision exists in the average liberal arts college for giving credit for courses taken in such exotic fields as agriculture, forestry or veterinary medicine? Could they be counted in the "science" requirement, or might they be better placed in the elective column? But if they are counted as electives, does the home college permit this amount of obviously elementary work to be elected by a student? And, if this work is taken in the junior year, what damage is wrought in the student's major field?

Each college or university will have to provide its own answers to these knotty questions. But solutions are possible if a spirit of good will obtains. It is maintained that these fields *do* represent a liberalizing element in the lives of the students we are discussing and, as such, can rightfully be accredited when the final balance is struck. If they cannot, the American college will have lost the flexibility for which it has justly gained worldwide acclaim. Speaking of the tradition on which the American university is based, *The University and World Affairs* says:

The universities were mindful of their Western heritage, of the international scope of science and letters, and of the universal implications of the principles of a free society, but most were nevertheless predominantly domestic in their scope and character. Such was the condition of the past. Today, no university can afford to maintain so obsolescent a posture.⁴

¹ *The University and World Affairs*, The Ford Foundation, New York, 1961, pp. 29-30

² *ibid.*, pp. 30-31

³ Appreciation is expressed to my colleague, Dr. Broadus N. Butler who, in reading this article before publication, contributed the ideas (and many of the words) contained in the four preceding paragraphs

⁴ *African Students in the United States*, Committee on Educational Interchange Policy, New York, 1960, p. 13

⁵ *ibid.*, p. 9

⁶ *op. cit.*, p. 10

Outstanding Students in Liberal Arts Colleges

WILLIAM E. CADBURY, JR

An exploratory conference reported by its chairman

The problem of the outstanding student concerns many educators today. Until recently, seekers for excellence were bucking a tide of public indifference or even hostility, but there has been a change in the climate of opinion which has far-reaching effects. Students in many of our colleges seem to be better prepared and better motivated than formerly. It is important that appropriate advantage be taken of these changes.

There is concern, too, for the democratic tradition. In his book *Excellence: Can We Be Equal and Excellent Too?*, published last winter, John W. Gardner discussed implications of both these concerns. The warm reception given that thoughtful essay indicates the importance of the subject in the minds of many.

The "coming tidal wave of students" has created fears that standards cannot be maintained in the presence of overwhelming numbers. Several universities have already taken action to assure that their best students will have adequate opportunity for optimum development. Honors programs have sprung up right and left. Much of the credit should go to Dr Joseph W. Cohen and his Interuniversity Committee on the Superior Student (ICSS). The ICSS Newsletter has disseminated information about what is going on; such information, together with conferences and visits to various campuses by Dr Cohen and other members of the committee, has stimulated development of honors programs in the large universities.

The Newsletter has not ignored programs in the small colleges—about a dozen such have been discussed in its pages—but the small colleges, despite their pioneering work in honors, have made no concerted effort to meet the special needs of their best students. Perhaps there is no need for a concerted effort; perhaps there is in-

difference on the part of faculties; perhaps there just has not been effective publicity. This paper is the report of a conference held last spring to discuss the matter.

A group of deans of small colleges, meeting informally at the time of the Boston meeting of the American Conference of Academic Deans (January 1960), discussed this question, expressed concern over the lack of available information and appointed a committee of four to do something about it.¹ This committee drew up a plan for a conference at which these matters might be discussed. They submitted a proposal for support to the Carnegie Corporation of New York, which made a generous grant to Haverford College for the purpose, and the conference was held at the Inn at Buck Hill Falls, Pennsylvania, 26-29 March 1961.

At an early meeting, the committee decided that the conference would have to be limited in size if it were to be effective. Each of 45 colleges was asked to send two representatives—in most cases the dean and a full-time member of the teaching faculty. Also invited were several representatives of foundations and educational associations, and a few from secondary schools. The colleges were selected so as to give a reasonably homogeneous group with respect to size (not over 2000 students) and academic standards, to include men's colleges, women's colleges and coeducational colleges, and to assure representation from all sections of the country.²

Scope of the Conference

Even before the conference met, questions were raised about the necessity of discussing the subject. Is there any problem in colleges like these? One view holds that since such small colleges are selective all their students should be "outstanding" and need no special consideration. Some answers to this argument are: first, that no matter how selective an institution is, some students are better than others; second, that devices for selection are not so accurate as the argument would imply; third, that even if all students were of equal ability, differences in motivation and emotional condition would produce differences in effectiveness; and fourth, that few if any colleges are *that* selective in any case. The opinion has also been expressed that in these small colleges the opportunities for individual attention are so great that special treatment for outstanding students is unnecessary. One reason for holding the conference was to discover whether students in such colleges are *in fact* being adequately challenged. Perhaps special programs are not necessary, but we need

only point to the success of the honors program at Swarthmore as an example of one small, highly selective college where special attention to the best students has been effective.

Some advance publicity referred to the conference as one on "Honors Programs"; perhaps for this reason, several participants seemed to fear that they were to be told that they should establish such programs in their own institutions. Possible questions for discussion (see below) were printed in the conference program, and this list included several designed to indicate that the committee had no such preconceptions. To give further assurance on this point, the chairman's introductory remarks included the following: "We on this committee are not necessarily assuming that 'Honors Programs' as such are the answer, nor are we assuming that they are not. Perhaps in small schools like ours more individualized treatment is practical. We hope the conference will find this a fruitful field for discussion." We hoped that the conference would tackle these problems open-mindedly; we believe that our hope was realized.

The conference followed what is fairly standard procedure for such gatherings: formal presentations from the platform, round-table discussions at which the ideas thus presented, and others, could be considered, and final reports from the round tables. The opening address was given by President Howard F. Lowry of the College of Wooster. Other speakers were Dr Joseph W. Cohen of ICSS, Dean George R. Waggoner of the University of Kansas, Dr Charles R. Keller of the John Hay Fellows Program and Miss Elizabeth Paschal of the Fund for the Advancement of Education. In addition, Dr Byron Stookey of Harvard, Dean William C. H. Prentice of Swarthmore and Dean Ivan M. Stone of Beloit, at an evening session, described "Experiences with Outstanding Students."

General Sessions

The chairman's "Introduction to the Conference" presented its background and called attention to the effect at the boundary between school and college of early admission and the Advanced Placement Program. He discussed briefly the identification of able students—warning against relying too heavily on tests. He pointed out that the students with whom such a conference is concerned are not those with natural ability only but those with such ability who make use of it. "Able and effective students" are those with whom it is concerned, but questions should also be raised about how to stimulate able but *ineffective* students to use their abilities. He also indicated

that research in the behavioral sciences, which implies that students with different personality characteristics appear to learn differently in different types of learning situations, may be able to lead us to more effective ways of treating students according to their differing personality types. He stressed the point that, if there are special programs for certain students, it will influence, probably both for good and ill, those who do not participate as well as those who do.

President Lowry's opening address made a plea for "a real framework of expectation." He began with a charming fable (published elsewhere) about a boy named Henry Carson whose record of College Board scores was accidentally altered by the wanderings of a nocturnal mouse to read "800, with smudge marks"—a score which suggested nothing short of genius. And, according to the fable, because much was expected of Henry, he accomplished much. He decided: "If that's the kind of mind I've got, I must live up to it," and he did, even beyond the best of his rather limited ability.

Dr Lowry spoke briefly of the program of independent study at Wooster. He emphasized that this is "a program for all students in the college and not just for honor students alone." His main thesis was expressed thus: "What we do for the gifted student should take place as far as possible within the framework and opportunity that we offer to all our students alike. The inclusion of everyone . . . is an essentially healthy thing for a campus where . . . the gifted are not restrained, where the sky is their limit and every encouragement is given to them, but where one has the fun also of enjoying some of the fine surprises that come to men and women who would never have the nerve to propose themselves for honors and who do not know that they have minds until the true time is."

Dr Cohen brought his wisdom, his enthusiasm and his experience as director of ICSS to bear on "Special Problems of the Small Colleges."

He expressed the hope that representatives of 45 fairly similar small colleges at the conference "will include in your perspectives the 500 other smaller colleges in the country. Many of them do not enjoy your advantages. As you explore and pool your own experience at this conference I would plead that you would consider how you are atypical in the wide sector of the small college so that your conclusions . . . may have relevance for them all."

He challenged the small colleges on the issue of quality. "Until quite recently the burden of quality has been carried by the private sector of higher education. . . . Innovation and experiment have nat-

urally been more frequent in the more intimate and well-endowed institutions. . . . (But) I believe that this is no longer the case and that the public sector is on the move with its abler students in such a way as to generate a genuine challenge to you if you are to remain in the van of quality." Later he added: "You have to move in new directions in the small colleges . . . in order to maintain the eminence you've had in the matter of quality. The challenge to you is precisely that large institutions, despite the bulge in enrolment, are gearing themselves to do a much better job with quality through four-year programs for ten to fifteen per cent of their students and for the most promising portion of their faculty."

His enthusiasm and the frankness with which he expressed his own point of view—confidence in the effectiveness of honors programs—helped greatly to stimulate discussion. Among the points he made were these:

"Start at once with the freshmen; . . . don't wait for two years as you are in the habit of doing. . . . Your characteristic honors pattern . . . has been 'junior-senior-departmental, independent study, tutorial, senior thesis.' It has been your way since the twenties. . . . To start with juniors seems to imply that you don't need to give thought to the best freshmen and sophomores and that you serve them sufficiently in the fundamental courses of the lower division."

He warned against a new rigidity. "We even have to keep on breaking the *honors* lock step, and, if I am to be frank with you, I think you are in a lock step with your [present] approach. . . . You may fail by this pattern to engage many of the ablest students when they are at their potential best—in the first two years—and when their expectations are highest. Usually if they are first-rate as juniors they were also just as good as freshmen. There is much talk among you of the 'sophomore slump.' We might ask ourselves whether this is not due to a let-down after the first year, during which only his anticipations of college carried the student along, but during which offerings fell short of that power to engage and stimulate which should have made the sophomore year one in which he would have bloomed rather than slumped. But if such a slump there be, what more obvious way to cure it than to start honors at least then and there! Take advantage of the so-called Hawthorne effect which psychologists . . . assure us almost guarantees an end of doldrums."

He recommended the introduction of honors in general studies as well as in departments, and appealed for flexibility in whatever pro-

gram is adopted and for selection of the best teachers for such a program.

He used a term, "spill-over," which thus became part of the conference vocabulary. "Honors programs in colleges which have not had them . . . will serve as pilot projects for the best possible things that can be done curricularly for all students. Honors programs as pilot projects and the 'spill-over' effects of programs are two things we (in ICSS) are convinced about. . . . In the small college the impact on the rest of the students from something you do with a select group will be more rapid because you can do it well and visibly. . . . In this intimate environment the spill-over will come faster."

Dr Cohen also pointed out the need for evaluation and warned against confusing "independent work" with "honors." "It is a complete confusion of thought about honors to define it merely as a form of independent study." Independent study "is a private transaction between the professor and the student. It is invisible to others."

Finally, he discussed at some length the "colloquium" as a significant part of any honors program, which encourages "the generation of living dialogue, the confrontation of ideas, and values with all the vigor, sincerity and aplomb of which superior students are, or can become, capable."

In planning the conference, the committee recognized that the problem of excellence is not limited to the college years. Representatives of secondary schools were invited so that ideas from that segment of education would be heard. Dr Keller, who had devoted several years to service as director of the Advanced Placement Program, was asked to discuss the transition from school to college; he entitled his talk "Challenging the Colleges."

He asked: "How many people will know what I mean if I now say that in many high schools the curriculum is in motion in most subjects?" Recent developments in the schools constitute a significant challenge to the colleges, and this challenge should have certain consequences. "The first two years of college should be planned not by themselves but in relation to what has gone before and what will come later. In the first year of college there should be some seminars, some independent work, some opportunities for outstanding students to take charge—or to continue to take charge—of their own education and to learn—not just to 'take' courses and be taught. Qualified students should be able to begin their majors in sophomore year. Many have had enough general education by this time—or will continue to get it on their own. We should think seriously of three years

of college for some of these students who have had good high school work. Most of them will go to graduate school. One way to combat the sophomore slump is to eliminate the sophomore year."

In introducing the topic "The Early College Years," Dean Waggoner pointed out that the students themselves often set the pace—agreeing in this with President Lowry's emphasis on the level of expectation. "The means of control of intellectual production by undergraduates are not those of a formally organized labor union and regulations concerning the number of bricks that may be laid in a day but are more subtle." He told of an instance where students—not average students, but a specially selected group—when some of their colleagues were obviously unprepared, were "a little slower (than usual) . . . to exhibit how thoroughly they had done their tasks." He mentioned studies which show what a tremendous range there is, even among very able students in a single institution, in the amount of time spent on their work. He cited data showing how much more time students spend in the senior year than earlier. Clearly, many able students are not adequately challenged during the early college years.

He pointed out the need, especially in the early years, for the kind of advising which would place students in courses, or sections, which are sufficiently challenging. He said: "I take for granted the use of advanced placement," and continued: "I believe there is a natural and healthy sequence of developments in the planning of educational experience for undergraduates. One sets up an honors program on an experimental basis for some of the college's most able students. The program then succeeds. There follows a stage wherein much of the new program in teaching and advising is extended to the entire student body. . . . There is another stage at which one must again examine what is happening to the minority of the most able students, so that again one sorts them out and pushes them ahead, and then again there is 'feedback' into the regular program. . . . There is no particular design of curriculum that matters: the important thing is the dynamic quality within the curriculum, the student and the faculty."

Miss Paschal, who had been asked to talk about some aspect of "The Later Years in College," discussed "a kind of honors program which might extend beyond college into the first graduate year. . . . There is as much need for good articulation between . . . departmental honors programs in the latter years of college and the first year of graduate school as there is for good articulation in the latter high

school and early college years. This articulation . . . might be achieved through a new kind of master's degree program which would start with the junior year of college and take three years, including the first graduate year. . . . The competition for Ph.D.'s in the fields outside of college teaching is increasing and many of the better students who take Ph.D.'s are not going into college teaching. And, in part, I think that is because their undergraduate experience hasn't sufficiently encouraged them . . . to want to go into teaching as a career. So I'm suggesting a program for able students which would start at least with the junior year in college, which would be sequential, which would be rigorous, which would set the feet of these students toward college teaching, and which would turn out some pretty good college teachers."

According to this proposal, a college would offer a master's degree in one or two fields in which it is particularly strong; if several colleges in an area did this, on a loosely cooperative basis, most of the fields could be covered. A modification of this idea is already being tried among a number of universities. Miss Paschal's suggestion is that liberal arts colleges could take advantage of their special strengths to do something constructive along these lines for their more able students.

One purpose of the conference was to share experiences, and although the emphasis in round-table discussions was largely critical and analytical, the descriptive—"this is how we do it at our college"—was not ignored altogether. Some "experiences with outstanding students" seemed of sufficient interest and importance to justify presentation to the whole group, and one evening was devoted to consideration of three such "experiences."

Dr Stookey described the "Freshman Seminars at Harvard"—a program not unlike what Dr Cohen called "colloquia"—by which certain freshmen are allowed to participate, in lieu of one of their courses and freed from concern about grades, in one of a wide variety of intellectual experiences. This is not an "honors program," nor a program for "superior students"—participants are freshman volunteers—but is an experimental program which, hopefully, can have an appreciable "spill-over."

Dean Prentice described the honors program at Swarthmore—about which everyone had undoubtedly heard but about which most were really, up to that moment, remarkably ignorant. He made no claim that this was the only way to handle outstanding students in a selective, small college. But it is quite apparent that a well organized

program of this sort can be very effective in providing an educational experience that is sufficiently challenging for the most able.

Dean Stone described how, in the "Argonne Semester," two kinds of cooperative endeavor can be combined to the advantage of some students and faculty members in small colleges. The Associated Colleges of the Midwest have worked out an arrangement with the Argonne National Laboratory by which selected ACM students and faculty members can spend time working and studying at Argonne—the students receiving academic credit and the faculty members advancing their own professional competence and, hopefully, contributing some significant research results along the way.

Emerging Problems

The prepared speeches were intended to supply background material for discussion in the round-table groups. As further preparation, the committee had prepared an extensive list of questions, which were printed in the conference program. They were preceded by this statement: "The following questions are designed to stimulate discussion. They are not intended to imply any particular point of view. They need not all be discussed nor need they be discussed in any particular order. Since other equally important topics will undoubtedly occur to participants, discussion is not limited to these."

Among these questions were the following:

Special Problems of the Small Colleges

There are those who believe that we should spend our energies on the best possible education for all our students. How necessary is special treatment for outstanding students?

If our colleges are very selective, and are becoming more so, what spread in ability do we actually have? . . . Do at least some of the students in whom we are interested have characteristics which are not readily quantified? How do we identify these students? At what stage of their careers?

If special treatment is desirable for our outstanding students, should this treatment be individualized, should there be special programs, should there be a combination of the two, or should some new approach be sought?

If we do establish special programs, which of those already established are worth emulating? How must they be modified to fit our special needs?

Should honors represent extra depth? or breadth? or both? or sometimes one, sometimes the other?

Students who care about grades may be reluctant to participate in "special programs." What can, and should, be done to assure that rewards are adequate and appropriate?

Several colleges have banded together as cooperative groups (the Associated Colleges of the Midwest, the Connecticut Valley Group, the Three-College (Quaker) group in suburban Philadelphia, the Richmond Area Center, the Associated Colleges at Claremont). How can such intercollege cooperation be used profitably by outstanding students?

How are special programs, if established in the small colleges, to be financed? Is there danger that special attention to outstanding students will be at the expense of others?

Transition from High School to College, and the Early College Years

What has been the experience of our colleges with early admission and with advanced placement? How much encouragement should we give to either of these programs? Or to other similar devices?

How can we avoid duplication with high school work, especially for our best students? Is a gap in preparation less harmful than the boredom produced by duplication?

Should some (or all) of our outstanding students skip the freshman year entirely? Would this avoid duplication of high school work? Would it constitute a useful kind of challenge?

What can be done to challenge the brilliant "under-achiever" or the very able student who merely "does all right"?

If there is to be special treatment for the able, should selection be on the basis of demonstrated ability in specific subjects or of general aptitude? Should programs be established only for students with over-all competence, or should they be so planned as to provide for students of unusual ability in limited fields?

To what extent can outstanding students be permitted and/or encouraged to work independently? to omit some or all formal course work? Is it a possible solution to allow such students to carry a heavy overload and thus to accelerate by taking more rapidly the same courses as others do? Or should the whole nature of their education be different?

Should certain students be designated as honor students right from the start? (Is a carrot really needed?)

What impact does a "program" have on those selected? On those not selected? On those originally selected who are not able to meet the challenge and have to drop out of the special program?

The Later Years in College

Most existing programs leading to honors at graduation are for departmental honors. Should efforts be made to add programs of general college honors? Should departmental honors be replaced by general honors? For some, or for all outstanding students?

Do most honors programs afford an opportunity for a higher degree of specialization for outstanding students than for others? If so, what kinds of treatment for outstanding students not involving extra specialization toward the end of the college course are possible? or desirable?

What devices, other than formal programs leading to departmental or general honors, can be developed which would improve education for outstanding students?

To what extent should the program for outstanding students be similar to a normal graduate program? To what extent should these students, during the fourth or even the third year, be treated as well prepared graduate students in a good graduate school are treated?

What differences in ways of dealing with outstanding students should, and can, be developed to take account of differences in personality types? in vocational goals? in scales of values? or, obviously, in preparation?

As the discussions began, it was apparent that there were two points of view about what, fundamentally, the conference was concerned with. One point of view assumes that we hope to establish or improve special programs for the more able. The other assumes that we are interested in assuring appropriate opportunities, and supplying adequate guidance, within a consistent but flexible framework. As participants who made one of these assumptions discovered that others were starting from a different assumption, the discussions began to make more sense.

One of the questions which occupied the groups quite early was: "Who are the outstanding students?" with its corollary: "How are they to be identified?" Various views were expressed, and gradually a sense of agreement began to appear. This process was greatly assisted by Dean Prentice, who at the close of his description of the Swarthmore honors program, added the following:

"What is it that we mean by the outstanding student? Do we mean the one student in a hundred? Do we mean the one student in a hundred, not in our colleges but in the population, who then might be one in ten or twenty or fifty in our individual colleges, depending on how selective we are? Or do we mean one student in ten in the population at large, for instance, a number much larger than the first one that I've chosen? I think we have not agreed . . . on what we mean by the outstanding student. . . . To me the problem of educating the outstanding student is not a problem of educating . . . those very rare and unusual creatures whom we all see once in a while, but rather a question of educating *any and all students in our colleges who are not yet being stretched to their limit*. Now some of these are not 'outstanding' by any criterion except the college they are in. They are only outstanding because they are better than the programs provided for them. . . . The problem that faces you and me is to create programs that will stretch *every student*, not just the 'gifted,' but every

student who is not now being given the opportunity to do everything of which he is capable."

According to this view, the question in the abstract: "Who is the outstanding student?" is meaningless. The outstanding student in whom the conference was interested is the student who is not adequately challenged by the existing program, whatever it may be. If there were a college with a program sufficiently flexible and demanding to challenge every student, that college would have no problem with outstanding students.

The important question, then, is how to assure that each student is adequately challenged. Some colleges are able to develop for all students programs which incorporate enough flexibility so that the needs of the best students can be met. Others find it desirable to develop special programs for the able; it is for them that the questions: "Who are the outstanding students?" and "How are they to be identified?" have particular relevance. For the others, the special needs of each individual student must receive careful consideration.

Some people take the position that, regardless of the degree of flexibility in the normal program, there are values to the whole institution to be achieved by special attention, well publicized, to the most able. The argument goes: At the University of X, which accepts nearly all applicants, the honors students are of about the same ability as all students at the highly selective Y College. But even at Y, some are more effective than others. If a special challenge is made to these most effective students, their response, and the knowledge which others have of it, raises the level of all, just as the response to honors at X raises the level there. The only difference is the level at which improvement starts. Both Dr Cohen and Dean Waggoner, from their experience with ICSS, emphasize the importance of general knowledge of what is being done. Without "visibility," the "spill-over" is small. The real controversy seems to be whether or not these things should be institutionalized.

The Round Tables

Areas of general agreement, and areas where there were conflicting opinions, were described and discussed by reporters from the round tables at the closing general session of the conference, with Dean Strathmann as coordinator.³ The reporters prepared hastily written reports, which they submitted in advance to Dean Strathmann. At the general session, he called on the various reporters to present specific

points which had been effectively treated in their round tables. He opened the session by pointing out important areas of general agreement. In addition to the conclusion that "all students are unequal, but some are more unequal than others," there was agreement on the following points:

1. Institutions vary so much in resources, aims, curricula, faculty, students, that programs for outstanding students must be developed within the institution. We can learn from each other, but we cannot effectively copy a program without regard to local conditions.
2. There is maximum agreement on the need for flexibility—permitting qualified students to by-pass requirements, varying the programs, arranging for late entrance to a program, and so on.
3. The round tables agree that our freshman programs as they have been conducted in the recent past are not challenging the ablest freshmen. *On this point there was strong dissent.*
4. There was some sentiment for special attention to sophomores rather than freshmen, apparently on the theory that when we get to know the freshmen, some of the devices discussed of special benefit to them might apply even better to the year which is notorious for its slump.
5. Almost all the colleges represented have some kind of honors program or independent study program for juniors and seniors, but catalogues are sometimes misleading about the scope of such programs and the numbers of students involved.

Dean Strathmann summarized some other areas of recurrent discussion. "Among the barriers to development of honors programs are included administrative indifference, administrative concern about expenses, over-specialization of the faculty, faculty fear of encroachment on special disciplines; on the part of the students some fear of the unknown, occasionally a reluctance to be set apart from the student body at large. . . . Much attention was paid to the identification of outstanding students. There was fair unanimity on the idea that early identification is desirable, but no consensus whatever on the methods of making the identification. There was agreement that test scores and grades are certainly not enough. . . . There was agreement that one of the qualities chiefly to be sought is creativity. There is some sentiment for postponing the selection until the second semester of the freshman year (but) that does not capitalize on the enthusiasm of the entering student. There was widespread support for advanced placement and feeling that the colleges should continue to support this program. Discussion of advanced placement led, of course, to consideration of the relationships of the high school and the freshman year."

Professor Prickitt was called on for discussion of this point.⁴

There are two main blocks to an easy transition from high school to college: too little continuity, and too much overlap. Students too often repeat work they have already done. This is particularly true of the superior student. General education courses sometimes sidetrack the student, often the superior student, who is interested in a particular discipline, so that he has to postpone involvement with his main interest. There should be greater knowledge on the part of college teachers as to what is going on in high school, so that they may help the freshman on the level at which he actually is.

Dean Abernethy was asked to report on a discussion in his group regarding types of students. He said:

Because of a possible assumption that a small college with a selective admissions policy might be a homogeneous community of equally able students without any real need for programs that would enrich the outstanding, the group decided to examine these relatively typical student bodies to see if there were significant differences even among the able and then to inquire how different methods might serve the different needs these students have. The following five types were identified: (a) the "dilettante"—the glib, facile student who carefully resists or avoids the basic introductory courses because they bore him; (b) the "opportunist"—he knows exactly what he wants, he usually achieves good grades, and he ignores any path that does not lead clearly to his predetermined goal; (c) the "confused" student—he either does not know what he wants or he finds the curriculum a conspiracy to frustrate him; (d) the "non-involved"—the child of our affluent society who does not really want anything at all; (e) the honestly "able" student. The "dilettante" needs to be informed rather firmly of his inability, and to see that an easy grasp of difficult matter comes from hard work. The "opportunist" needs a shock, as does the "non-involved"; both need the competition of the intellectually hungry and the influence of a college community actively concerned with values. The "confused" needs the experience of accomplishing something, perhaps modest but illuminating and self-defined. The honestly "able" student needs the best kind of honors program he can get which will both challenge and stretch him.

The value of honors programs received a good deal of attention. Professor Hightower reported on this subject:

You pick outstanding students for a particular program, but the real value is not to them alone. "Spill-over" works like this: You use a different method with some students; thus you justify experimentation and may even get a sign of consent from the most encrusted members of the faculty. When this method has been accepted, to keep from falling into a lock step you try a new method on some others. Students not in the program are excited and ask questions about it. It is good for the entire student body to learn what is happening. It is good for the faculty; what was done on an experimental

basis would be accepted later, and then you can experiment on something else.

Concern for the possibility that an honors group might be too much secluded was discussed by Dean Johnston.

There are schools where honors students live in a special dormitory. There are others where they have special privileges; this is intended to lend outward distinction to a program that is good not only for special students but for the college as a whole. It gives prominence to a level of learning to which others not in the program might aspire. The opposing view holds that no such distinctions should be made. The idea of a community of learners is destroyed if special people are picked out and given special privileges and programs. Fear was expressed of creation of an intellectual elite that would be removed and withdrawn from the bulk of the student body.

The question of exclusion was discussed from a somewhat different point of view by Professor Fleming:

Some people hope that some kind of honors program may be a means of promoting an intellectual atmosphere on the campus. There are others who believe that this can be achieved more effectively by a program that involves the whole student body, that this is better done by a collective than by an intensive program, and that the whole purpose of generating an exciting intellectual atmosphere is defeated by having it apply to a small group. I'm sure this depends on the selectivity of the various schools.

The endless debate on breadth versus depth inevitably found its way into most of the discussions. As Dean Johnston reported,

The outstanding students can be given greater breadth than others; their minds can be opened to areas of intellectual activity where the normal student might not be able to go. Or these qualities can be applied deeper and deeper in a special field.

Interdisciplinary honors programs were considered, both pro and con. Professor Hexter reported:

We were not in agreement but there was a strong sense that a real need is developing for students, particularly outstanding students, to know more than one thing. As J. Robert Oppenheimer once said, "The great discoveries are made by people who know two things at once." We had no easy solution as to how an interdisciplinary approach should be effected. One way is through the freshman colloquium, or, at the upper division level, through honors work in several areas. The question was raised: Is there any way of finding out whether or not the people that we graduate really have "integrated" over the four years that they have been with us? It was felt that use of a truly comprehensive examination might force the student to do a little thinking about his various courses and experiences.

Professor Hightower noted that the "interdisciplinary courses that

cut across departments, for which we were so eager a few years ago, are beginning to drop by the wayside in colleges. Perhaps we can put in a substitute in the form of a seminar or colloquium."

A good deal of interest in the colloquium was evident. It is quite apparent that, if something special is to be done for the outstanding student, merely increasing the quantity of work or the rate at which he progresses is not the answer. Full advantage should be taken of his particular qualities. As Dean Johnston said, "The colloquium is in some respects well suited to the outstanding student and what we are trying to do for him because it lends itself well to the disputation which is essential to sharpening of the mind."

Dean Abernethy passed on from his group a strong plea "for colleges to follow their students after graduation, particularly their honors students, to see if there has been any real effect in accomplishment, in sense of values, and in public responsibility."

The impact of graduate and professional schools on college programs received some attention. The importance of this, and of the relationship of the colleges to the high schools, was underlined by Mr Alexander Taffel of the Bronx High School of Science, who pleaded for less "insularity" on the part of the colleges and concluded: "I don't think you are going to solve the problem of the outstanding student unless you consider that there is a continuity in his life that began before you got him and that will continue after he leaves."

Future Plans

The purpose of the conference was to raise questions, to discuss possible answers and to exchange views and experiences. There are those who strongly support "the honors outlook"—who favor special programs for the better students, not for their benefit alone but to improve by "spill-over" the intellectual life of the whole institution. There are also those who regard this as unnecessary or undesirable—who prefer to treat each student as an individual, trusting to individual guidance in a flexible program to assure full development of his full potential. As one participant wrote after the conference, "Probably the most important single thing is to recognize outstanding students in some fashion. . . . How each college gives an outstanding student a feeling of worth is very interesting, but the exact fashion in which it is done probably matters less than we at the conference assumed."

Throughout the conference a small committee, under the chairmanship of Dean Lloyd E. Worner of Colorado College, tried to obtain

the views of participants on what, if anything, should be done after the conference to promote better education for outstanding students in liberal arts colleges. After expressing their thanks to the Carnegie Corporation for its support, in which the whole conference concurred, this committee presented, and the conference approved, the following recommendations:

It is the sense of this conference that the present committee be encouraged:

1. To explore ways and means to gather and disseminate information on the problems of the education of the outstanding student;
2. To study the possibilities of another conference preceded by small meetings on a regional or other basis within the next three or four years;
3. To seek financial support from such organizations as may be interested in such a proposal.

The present committee of four deans has been enlarged by the addition of four full-time teachers: Professors Carl M. Stevens, Department of Economics, Reed College; Henry B. Prickett, Department of English, Middlebury College; Howard H. Harlan, Department of Sociology, Birmingham-Southern College; and Scott B. Elledge, Department of English, Carleton College.

¹ The College Committee on Outstanding Students consisted of Dean Parker E. Lichtenstein of Denison University, Dean Herman R. Muelder of Knox College, Dean Ernest A. Strathmann of Pomona College and Dean William E. Cadbury, Jr of Haverford College, Chairman.

² The colleges were: Allegheny, Amherst, Beloit, Birmingham-Southern, Bryn Mawr, Carleton, Colby, Colorado College, Davidson, Denison, DePauw, Earlham, Fisk, Franklin and Marshall, Goucher, Grinnell, Hamilton, Haverford, Hollins, Holy Cross, Kalamazoo, Kenyon, Knox, Lake Forest, Lawrence, Middlebury, Mills, Millsaps, Morehouse, Mt. Holyoke, Oberlin, Occidental, Pomona, Reed, University of the South, Swarthmore, Union, Vassar, Wabash, Washington and Lee, Wellesley, Wesleyan, Whitman, Williams, and Wooster.

Secondary schools represented were: Bronx High School of Science, Germantown Friends School, and Phillips Exeter Academy.

Other organizations represented were: American Council on Education, Carnegie Corporation of New York, Danforth Foundation, Educational Testing Service, Fund for the Advancement of Education, Harvard University, Interuniversity Committee on the Superior Student, John Hay Fellows Program, University of Kansas, National Education Association, National Science Foundation, Woodrow Wilson National Fellowship Foundation.

³ The reporters were: Professors Raymond Hightower, Kalamazoo; Henry B. Prickett, Middlebury; William M. Amherst; Phyllis J. Fleming, Wellesley; and Deans Cecil B. Abernethy, Birmingham-Southern, and Frontis W. Johnston, Davidson.

⁴ Although these reports are indicated as direct quotes, they are in actuality highly condensed paraphrases of what was said.

Latin-English Alliance

A. M. WITHERS

Opportunities for learning Latin in elementary and secondary school, suggests the author, are more likely to develop sensitivity and skill in the use of words than multitudinous English compositions

The matter of making one's pen mighty, or at least of learning to convey worthwhile thoughts in a worthwhile way, is now occupying more than ever before the consciences of those concerned with the equipment of college entrants.

Dr J. B. Conant has announced that the salvation of the child as prospective wielder of an efficient pen consists in the writing of multitudinous compositions, to be meditated upon magistrally and sympathetically by dedicated teachers in quantity unlimited, since only so could there be a getting around to continual personal guidance and constant lift under individual shoulders.

In similar strain other theorists are urging their opinions in the current professional magazines and the newspapers. Like the talk-talk-talk proponents of foreign-language study, aiming only at talk, they envision only one thing in regard to learning to write, namely, writing and writing and more writing.

How did all this overpowering emphasis on the pure practice of writing for children and younger teenagers come about? Probably by way of a false analogy.

We have unceasingly been told by literary authors, particularly by many who have made their way in fiction, of the infinite pains and the long-lasting period of their self-enforced writing apprenticeship. Provided, at post-college age, through observation and experience added to preliminary schooling, with some degree of writing facility, they proceeded to clarify (to themselves at first) their plans, their plots and their general thinking. They wrote and they wrote, tore up what they had written and began anew. The manuscripts they first submitted to editors were usually not accepted, but they revamped their efforts and tried, tried again, until at last they cleared

a path, in editorial estimation, to the receptive attention of the reading public. They had learned their "writing" lesson and were now "made" men and women in the vast arena of authorship.

It is from this rather irrelevant fact—that authors do not suddenly spring full-blown into prominence without plenty of exercise in the writing art in their twenties, thirties and forties—that our educational sponsors have concluded that the same sort of procedure should be demanded of the young boy or girl. They do not stop to consider that childhood and adolescence do not share the adult's varieties of mental stimulation, his longing for fame and immortality, or even his sad necessity of making a living; that the young have not lived long enough, or read sufficiently, to match in any sense the adult's motives of self-development looking toward a definite and fairly unusual goal.

Considerations like these, of course, do not nullify the truth of the old adages to the effect that as the twig is bent the tree's inclined, that the child is father of the man, and that if you train up a child in the way he should go he will not depart therefrom. They simply mean that not every feature of self-development applicable to grown men and women is indicated in similar measure for the lower grades and the high school years.

It was the wise Solomon, I believe, who remarked that childhood and youth are vanity. Now vanity connotes many things, but the basic element in it as etymology shows, is plain "emptiness." A thing that is vain has little weight; an action that is vain is "empty" of results.

Wherein is the utility of a very young person's attempts to write out of a word-vacant mind? Not all the desperate efforts of the most beneficent teacher can furnish him the images that his brain must conceive, or what is the same thing, that sufficiency in the symbols of thought without which imagination stops dead in its tracks. Nor can that teacher, merely by admonition and guiding the pen or pencil, provide feeling for the mechanics of language. Knowledge of words and capacity for fitting them together do not lift themselves by their bootstraps.

Better by far than keeping the child in the grades and the boy and girl in the high school continually at the writing desk would therefore be to direct their thinking mainly on the accumulation of words, without which thoughts die or are not born. Let them persevere in this concentration and acquire thereby, in the only possible manner, something to say. As for good taste in the practical manner of saying

it, this should normally spring from the adaptations of logic inherent in word-knowledge—without which indeed satisfactory self-development in grammar is hopeless.

This brings us irresistibly to Latin, the largest source of vocabulary, whether we think of English, or for four other great Western languages which for culture's sake, as well as from national necessity, we need to learn. Latin is not at all too difficult for a child of eight or ten to undertake; and it is so different in structure from English that it sets the mind to working on enlightening comparisons and contrasts, thereby imparting a sense of the machinery of our language apart from those obtrusive direct external pressures in straight English-grammar teaching, which one must undergo, naturally, but of which as an isolated feature of mental diet one grows so tired. There is adventure and competitive zest in taking a Latin sentence that at first looks dark and mysterious, and transforming it, as the lights go on, into neat English prose—a process which has a value as composition much more pronounced than the reluctant, idealess kind that I have pictured above.

When an entering college student has had a serious brush with Latin, the fact immediately shines through in conversation; and when a professor of English comes to me for the meaning of *ceteribus paribus*, and another regularly writes *ect.* for *etc.*, something else shines through which is not so pleasant. Very few, even of our best writers and speakers, would have acquired a sense of English rhythm, consistent power of discrimination in choice of words, or even honorable distinction in grammatical detail, without that early industry connected with a reasonable introduction to Latin. Inquiry has always revealed that I was correct in assuming that given writers had Latin in their Background, whether they actually wrote for a living, or were doctors, lawyers, professors or radio broadcasters.

Latin does not of itself make a writer. Neither does mathematics of itself produce the scientist; but as the late Franklin P. Adams once wrote me (the discussion was on Latin aid to English), "The race is not always to the swift; but there is the place to look." What professor of English would not rejoice more in his sophomore class in the fellow who can read, however modestly, in Cicero, to the mass who have merely struggled through the fifteen freshman themes?

Thus I am led to ask: Would it not be common sense to allow substantial credit in English for work successfully passed in reading Caesar, Cicero and others of the great exponents of the language on which ours is so largely founded? The classics teachers would be

pleased to influence more students, while the English teachers labor under the handicap of having too many. Why not combine equitably these two beneficent forces? As a matter of cold fact, a teacher of Latin, perforce adept in English, is a much safer bet as a guide to English, all the way through, than his Latinless counterpart on the "English" staff.

It is obvious that the American masses, after the long, arid spell of neglect of Latin, are not going to rush pell-mell into it in order to cure an inadequacy which most perhaps do not even feel. There would always be some young people, however, who if offered the opportunity, would forsake the slow, unmixed, all-English experience for a new, inviting adventure. And once embarked on this with determination, they would soon find themselves in the midst of exciting and stimulating possibilities never dreamed before.

And so I, never a teacher of Latin, plead for an alliance—really the renewal of an old alliance—between Latin and English departments in the lower schools as well as in the colleges and universities.

Basic Issues in Accreditation of Teacher Education

WILLIAM K. SELDEN

*The problems of accrediting the preparation of
teachers reviewed in historical perspective as a basis
for further consideration of possible improvements
in the policies and practices of NCATE*

When the National Commission on Accrediting recognized the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education in 1956 as the national professional accrediting agency in the field of teacher education, it did so on the understanding that the two organizations would jointly review the structure, method of financing, policies and practices of NCATE by the end of 1960. This review took place over a year ago. Although consideration was then given to a number of different factors, it was mutually decided not to propose further changes at that time. It was agreed, however, that another joint review would be undertaken before December 1963 in which further attention would be given to these same factors. In anticipation of this review the Executive Committee of the National Commission, in May, and the Council of NCATE, in August of this year, each authorized the appointment of a committee jointly to consider appropriate revisions in NCATE and to make recommendations which would be both constructive and feasible.

Authorization for appointment of these two committees at this juncture was prompted by two factors. In the first place, considerable length of time is required to effect changes. Should recommendations be made for further alterations from the original structure of NCATE, such changes could not be proposed and acted upon in less than a year and a half to two years. To make structural revisions, formal approval must be obtained from each of NCATE's constituent members which at present comprise the following five organizations: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Council of

Chief State School Officers, National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards of the National Education Association, and the National School Boards Association.

Secondly, there have in recent months been manifestations of growing concern on the part of individuals in colleges of all types—liberal arts colleges, state colleges, schools of education, teachers colleges—with the accreditation of programs in teacher education. In view of these factors it seemed advisable to the National Commission that committees should be appointed sufficiently far in advance of 1963 to permit ample time for a thorough study of the issues involved. This seemed especially advisable in view of the fact that these issues are not simple, nor are they easily resolved.

Almost no activity in higher education is more widely misunderstood or subjected to such diverse criticisms as accreditation. Especially is this the case with respect to accreditation in teacher education, a field of study about which many educators, regardless of academic background, will often speak with more passion than judgment. It is difficult to bring clarity into discussions on this subject because almost every comment, no matter how diverse or extreme, is based upon some element of truth, though rarely do comments take into account all of the factors involved.

In all of the discussions over accreditation of teacher education, one tends to forget that accrediting is a fallible method which employs gross measurements to judge educational institutions and programs of study. It is neither exact nor refined in operation, and it is frequently based upon some compromise, whether it is a compromise on the part of those exercising judgment about the accredited status of an institution, or compromise in the selection of those who are delegated the responsibility of making such judgments. In this, as in other respects, accrediting is a manifestation in education of our native form of political and social control.

Just as adjustments and improvements are necessary from time to time in our political and economic controls, so are adjustments and improvements needed in our native methods of maintaining academic standards. Improvements in accreditation, however, and especially in accreditation of programs in teacher education, are initially dependent upon a clear understanding of the basic issues involved.

Basic Issues

In this controversy over national accreditation of teacher educa-

tion there are five basic issues which may be stated as follows: (1) Should there be a national agency to accredit programs in teacher education? (2) If so, what should be the composition of the organization's controlling body? (3) What should be the basis of its financial support? (4) What should be its policies? (5) How should its policies be enforced, or in other words what should be its practices? Although the present policies and practices of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education are of immediate concern to those institutions which are currently seeking accreditation, in the long run these two issues are subordinate in importance to the other three. Of primary importance is the question—should there be a national agency to accredit programs in teacher education?

Despite the fact that the National Commission on Accrediting officially recognized NCATE five years ago as the national agency for accreditation in the field of teacher education, there are educators who continue to believe that the six regional associations should not forsake this responsibility in favor of a national agency which, from their point of view, is not needed in the first place. This attitude is supported most enthusiastically by some representatives of liberal arts colleges. Since most of these institutions do not offer work in areas of study—such as dentistry, engineering, law, medicine, social work, theology—for which accrediting by a national professional agency has existed for some years, NCATE is the first national professional agency with which a great majority of the liberal arts institutions have had any relationship on the basis of accreditation. The one possible exception is in the field of chemistry. But the American Chemical Society includes less than 100 distinct liberal arts colleges in its list of approximately 300 approved institutions. Also, it limits its attention almost exclusively to chemistry.

This attitude is further supported by the fact that teacher education is a more integral part of the total academic offerings of a liberal arts school or college than any other field of study in which there is professional or specialized accrediting. In addition, NCATE potentially affects a greater number of colleges and universities than any other accrediting agency, whether professional or regional. At present there are 363 institutions on NCATE's approved list, which incidentally are preparing over seventy per cent of all new teachers certificated each year. In addition there are almost 700 other regionally accredited institutions of post-secondary education which purport at least to offer training in teacher education. For these and other reasons, the National Commission has consistently concerned itself

with NCATE much more than with any other accrediting agency, and this concern continues.

In determining the appropriate answer to the question whether there should be a national agency to accredit programs in teacher education it is necessary to consider not merely the theoretical factors but the practical factors as well.

First of all, accreditation of teacher education by a national agency was not an innovation which began with the formation of NCATE in the early 1950's. It was started some years earlier by a predecessor organization to the present American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education which assumed this responsibility for a few years until the formation of NCATE. This predecessor organization undertook the functions of accrediting at a time when the regional associations—not all of which had yet undertaken accreditation—refused to consider for membership those institutions which were devoted primarily to teacher training. One can conjecture that if the liberal arts people then responsible for the policies and operations of the regional associations had at that time assumed a different attitude, the course of events in accrediting teacher education might have been much different.

Secondly, it should be observed that the regional associations have not, at least in the past, pursued policies of sufficient similarity so that programs of teacher education offered by institutions in different parts of the country could be considered as meeting reasonably consistent standards. In fact, until recent years several regional associations made little effort to review an institution for re-accreditation unless there were complaints sufficient to warrant an investigation, even if the elapsed time since the initial accreditation extended to twenty or thirty years.

In the third place, regional associations in general have not seriously considered adopting a policy of publicly identifying those areas of study, such as teacher education, in which specific accrediting standards have been met by an institution. The policies of all regional associations have rested on the principle that their accreditation indicates over-all excellence with no assurance that *every* field of study offered by the institution meets minimum standards of excellence. With no intent to disparage this policy, it is necessary to remind ourselves that a university, for example, which might be an excellent institution possessing a well deserved general reputation, could at the same time be neglecting to support adequately its school of law to such an extent that its law students were being provided an inferior

education. Is it conceivable that the American Bar Association would be indifferent to this situation and merely rely on the fact that the university was granted general accreditation by the appropriate regional association? Likewise, is it conceivable that a profession, particularly one in which state licensure is a requirement to practice, will rely solely on the regional associations to identify institutions that are adequately providing specialized education and preparation for those entering the profession?

This same situation prevails in the field of teacher education. The fact that a liberal arts college may be excellent and may be accredited by a regional association does not necessarily assure that the institution offers a program of teacher education which is even minimally adequate. Unfortunately some very good colleges assume that an excellent liberal arts program will *by itself* guarantee good teacher preparation, and on this assumption make little effort to support a comparably good teacher education program. And at the same time these institutions may very likely object to accreditation of teacher education by a national agency on the ground that this agency impinges upon their institutional autonomy.

From this analysis it may be concluded that the accreditation of teacher education involves inevitable tension and an ever-threatening conflict between two important ideals—the maintenance of high standards in the preparation of teachers, and the preservation of institutional autonomy. This potential conflict exists in all accreditation. But in teacher education the conflict is more readily apparent than in any other professional field, largely because the subject matter of the teaching profession—unlike architecture, forestry, pharmacy, public health and so on—is nearly as broad in scope as the entire range of liberal studies, and therefore the preparation of teachers is potentially concerned with the entire academic program of liberal arts institutions. The conflict cannot be satisfactorily resolved by sacrificing either ideal. In recognition of this fact the Commission has been endeavoring to work toward a solution which will do justice to both professional standards and institutional autonomy.

On the basis of these and other factors the National Commission, five years ago, added NCATE to the official list of recognized accrediting agencies. Since then the Commission has not doubted the appropriateness and wisdom of this decision. On the other hand, it has been continuously concerned, both before and after that time, with the structure and operation of the Council of NCATE.

Structure of NCATE

Since the Council establishes the policies and practices of NCATE, since it is a semi-autonomous agency, and since its decisions are not directly subject to review by any other bodies, the structure of this governing board is basically important to all other issues and, in turn, is of concern to all higher education. From the inception of this organization, a serious attempt has been made for it to include representation from all segments of education interested in the preparation of teachers but, in the minds of liberal arts people especially, this has not yet been successfully accomplished.

Despite formal and informal invitations to participate, the liberal arts colleges through their national organization, the Association of American Colleges, have declined to have official representation on the Council. This decision was originally based on a policy of AAC not to be formally associated in accrediting operations, and more recently on a policy not to be financially involved in such activities. Consequently, to provide such representation, a temporary expedient was devised in 1956 and is still employed, whereby three members of the Council are selected by an ad hoc committee convened by the National Commission and comprising the chairmen of the higher commissions of the six regional associations. The three representatives so selected, together with the seven members appointed by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, are all from colleges or universities and comprise a majority of the present nineteen-member board. Of these ten collegiate members of the Council, two of the seven AACTE representatives and the three selected by the ad hoc committee are at the present time liberal arts people. The other members represent the TEPS Commission of NEA, with six representatives, and the chief state school officers, the state certification officers and the association of school boards, with the last three groups providing one representative each. This structure, which is intended to provide broad educational representation, was devised as part of the agreement between NCATE and the National Commission when NCATE was recognized by the Commission in 1956. It was not considered at that time to be a permanent arrangement but one that would serve until a better structure could be developed and widely accepted.

There now appear to be a rather large number of educators who believe that further revisions in the structure of NCATE would be appropriate and timely. Just what these revisions should be is subject to discussion and negotiation among the many different groups

involved. From informal discussions up to the present there emerges a consensus that the time is now approaching when a more permanent arrangement should provide for official representation of the academic fields and liberal arts institutions on the Council—that is, in addition to the representation of liberal arts colleges through AACTE, even though they are joining that organization in larger numbers. The basis for this opinion is the fact that a teacher education program is strong only insofar as there is mutual support from the professors of both the academic and the pedagogical disciplines. Good teacher education programs depend on both areas of study and not on either one alone. This principle is recognized in theory, but to put it into practice as far as the structure of NCATE is concerned presents a more difficult and complicated problem.

Not merely is agreement necessary among the present constituent members of NCATE, but a conviction of the importance of participation is necessary on the part of any other organization or organizations which may become constituent members. A rational point of view might well hold that if the liberal arts elements in higher education are concerned over the accreditation of programs in teacher education—and one cannot doubt this premise—they should not stand apart and only offer criticisms, but should be willing to participate formally in the Council of NCATE and share officially in the collective responsibility for improving its policies and practices. But this involves various factors, including the inevitable question of money.

Financing of NCATE

One of the serious problems with which NCATE has had to struggle from the time it began operating has been a lack of adequate financial support to conduct its extensive accrediting activities on an entirely sound basis. The dimensions of the financial need may be visualized when it is appreciated that the present NCATE list of 363 colleges and universities is larger than that of any other professional accrediting agency, and at the same time that the ratio of accredited institutions to the total number offering teacher education programs is less than the comparable figure for any other professional agency. Approximately one half of the professional agencies include on their individual lists less than fifty accredited institutions, and only one third of the agencies have accredited more than 100 institutions each. On the other hand, both the North Central and the Southern regional associations have accredited slightly more collegiate institutions than

NCATE, but they do not operate on a national scale and are not visiting as many institutions in one year. NCATE conducted eighty separate official institutional visits during the year 1960-61 and has more than that number on its schedule for the present year. Furthermore, the present large number of visits per year may be inadequate to meet the demand for revisits to institutions already accredited and for original visits to institutions seeking initial accreditation.

To meet these and other obligations the Council had to operate for the past year within a budget of \$73,000. This sum has placed restrictions on the implementation of several constructive proposals, such as better training and preparation of members of visiting teams—a serious difficulty which afflicts all accrediting agencies whether professional or regional. Not only is the size of the budget important, but also the source of funds demands special attention. Whether the pipers actually call the tunes can be convincingly denied in the case of any specific decision reached by the Council of NCATE. Nevertheless, one third of this past year's budget came from one source—the National Education Association through its National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards. This constituent member of NCATE provided \$24,000 and the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education furnished \$19,500 of the budget. Of the three other constituent members, only the National School Boards Association provided funds, which amounted to \$200.

Other sources included \$19,000 from fees for visitations to institutions; \$8,000 from the American Association of School Administrators to help temporarily with the financing of additional responsibilities related to the accrediting of programs in school administration; and \$2,500 from two sources—fees from institutions not members of AACTE, and contributions from state departments of education which make use of the NCATE list of accredited institutions in connection with the certification of teachers. From these figures it will be noted that over half of the budget, approximately \$40,000, comes from institutions either in the form of visitation fees or in dues, largely through AACTE membership. This is consistent with the policy adopted by the National Commission on Accrediting when it originally recognized NCATE in 1956—that the balance of control should rest within the colleges and universities.

Commensurate with the demands for improvement in the policies and practices of NCATE is the need to provide more funds to support these proposals for improved and expanded operations. If sources other than the institutions should provide these additional

funds, the balance of control, on which the colleges and universities through the National Commission have insisted, will be disrupted. The Council of NCATE is not unmindful of the concerns expressed over its policies and practices, and it is endeavoring to find the needed additional funds. If however the colleges and universities cannot provide the funds to finance the improvement in policies and practices of NCATE for which the institutions themselves have been appealing, the Council of NCATE will have no choice but to turn to sources other than the institutions.

Policies and Practices of NCATE

The *Statement of Purposes, Policies, and Procedures* of NCATE declares: "The Council recognizes that accreditation can and should perform two major functions in the improvement of teacher education. First, it can stimulate institutional self-evaluation and provide for exchange of viewpoint and experience among representatives of institutions. Second, it can assure the quality of teacher education programs to all institutions, organizations, agencies, and individuals interested in the product."

With this statement there has been no general disagreement, but there has been considerable questioning whether NCATE, through its present policies and practices, is actually fulfilling its stated purposes. In analyzing the criticisms one must make allowance for comments that may be based less on precise information than on fear that the institutions which some of the critics represent may not qualify for accreditation. There is no doubt that the graduates of some colleges have proved to be excellent teachers largely because of their own abilities and not because of what these colleges have professed to offer in the way of programs to train teachers. Such institutions should rightfully be concerned with the possibility of being subjected to an accreditation visit for their teacher education programs. But the criticisms do not emanate only from individuals fearful over the potential non-accredited status of their own institutions. They may be heard in most segments of higher education.

These criticisms are of a far-ranging nature. With no attempt in this article to establish their validity or lack of validity, the following are examples: that members of visiting teams are not sufficiently knowledgeable and well trained; that the teams unnecessarily include representatives of the state education association; that there is not adequate presentation of the report of the visiting team before the review committee; that the visitors are not permitted to make eval-

ative judgments and are expected only to check facts which the institution has already reported in its self-survey; that the criteria for accreditation place too much emphasis on factors of lesser importance, such as institutional organization for teacher education and procedural details; that the bases for evaluating the competence of the faculty members are not adequate; and that the standards are restricting and stultifying to imaginative programs for the preparation of teachers. There are also criticisms of policies over which NCATE has no official control—for example, that some organizations are stipulating graduation from an NCATE accredited institution as a requirement for membership; and that states—some twenty as of the moment—employ NCATE accreditation as one of the bases on which reciprocity is granted in the certification of teachers.

Fundamental to these and many other criticisms is a difference over philosophy in the preparation of teachers. This difference is one of long standing and is represented by the criticism that NCATE may be operating on too narrow a definition of the way to educate and train teachers. Those who sincerely believe that NCATE's definition of the best way to train teachers is too narrow—whether they are correct or not—are incited to alarm when a task force of the TEPS Commission of NEA, the constituent member which provided \$24,000 of the 1960-61 budget, includes in the preliminary report of its recent New Horizon Project the proposal that "only those teachers be employed who have been prepared in accredited programs. . ." And the concern of many disturbed individuals has not been lessened by the fact that the recommendations contained in this report have not even been endorsed by the TEPS Commission.

Fortunately there are several positive signs to give encouragement in this welter of educational bewilderment. In the first place, and in contrast to the situation only a half dozen years ago, the teacher education people and the liberal arts devotees are no longer lined up on opposite sides of the fence with regard to accreditation of programs in teacher education. There are now teacher-educationists who openly raise questions about the policies and procedures of NCATE, and there are liberal arts people who will be counted publicly in support of this national accrediting agency. Secondly, there is no apparent entrenched position which NCATE and its Council wishes to maintain. In fact, there is evidence of a sincere desire on its part to be a constructive influence in the education of the tens of thousands of future teachers who will be needed for the growing millions of young people in this country.

It is most encouraging to note that the times are now more propitious than they have ever been for further improvements in the policies and practices of NCATE. But to reach sound and constructive solutions will require a breadth of vision and a recognition of the obligations which all higher education must share in the education of our teachers. These obligations are not limited to the classroom and the campus but include the governance and maintenance of educational standards through our unique methods of accreditation and certification. To facilitate these improvements there needs to be a further review of NCATE—its structure, its financing, its policies and its practices. It is to this end that discussions and negotiations have already been initiated among representatives of the organizations most immediately concerned.

Learning Attitudes and Closed-Circuit Television

ECKHART A. JACOBSEN

A practical experiment indicates that the use of closed-circuit television makes little difference to the learning process except as a sensory aid in the presentation of teaching materials

Recent projections by colleges and universities throughout the United States indicate a substantial increase in student enrolment as well as commitments for new or modified programs in higher education. This projection not only has implications for staff and facilities but also for the teaching-learning practices to be used. Mass education suggests consideration of media appropriate to large group instruction, one of which is closed-circuit television.

A study was conducted to evaluate the attitudes held by students toward closed-circuit television and to consider closed-circuit television as a possible teaching-learning medium in university instruction. The study was concerned with the following five aspects:

1. Reception—the attitude of students as they perceived their participation (viewing) in a television learning situation compared to that of a conventional classroom learning situation;
2. Teacher Presentation—the attitude of students as they perceived the teacher's television presentation compared to the presentation in a conventional classroom situation;
3. Teaching Materials and Aids—the attitudes of students as they perceived the use of teaching materials and aids over television compared to a similar use of the same materials and aids in a conventional classroom;
4. Classroom Physical Facilities—the attitude of students as they perceived the physical factors of the television viewing room compared to similar physical factors found in a conventional classroom;
5. Television Instrumentation—the adequacy of the video and audio factors of the television instrument.

A university course in technical illustration, with 41 students, was chosen as the vehicle for this investigation. The course provided for both lecture and demonstration. The weekly program consisted of one lecture-demonstration and one laboratory session. The television session and the laboratory drawing session were held at the same hour on different days. Each session was one hour and fifty minutes in length, which included a ten-minute recess midway during the session. The instructor was the same for both sessions. The television session took place in a conventional classroom equipped with tablet chairs and two television viewing monitors. The laboratory was a conventional drawing room with drawing benches and the necessary related equipment. In addition to the instructor, television personnel included one producer, two camera men and one technician in the studio. The instructor had one semester of previous experience in teaching by television. The course used in this investigation was the second course in a sequence of two required courses. The drawing laboratory was the same for both courses.

A questionnaire, with 34 questions dealing with the five aspects of the investigation, was used as the evaluating instrument. The questionnaire was administered three times during the semester, at the fourth, tenth and sixteenth weeks. All administrations of the questionnaire were made under similar conditions. Questions were structured so as to compare the various aspects of the television learning situation with that of the conventional classroom. Comparisons were made on a five-point graded scale, "much more," "a little more," "about the same," "a little less" and "much less." Provision for additional comments from the students was made at the end of the questionnaire.

Evaluation of the data was made by comparing the class response on each item of the questionnaire given at the fourth week of the semester with the class response on the same item given at the sixteenth week.¹

Findings

Reception by Students. The expressed opinions of students indicated significantly more distractions in the television viewing room than might be expected in a conventional classroom learning situation, owing to the fact that television presented a new and less formal way of classroom learning, and compared to the conventional classroom there was significantly more eye strain. While students appreciated the unsupervised character of the television viewing room,

this factor also contributed to the distraction. The extent to which students found they were obliged to concentrate was significantly high. There was a consistent and significant concern in students about being more responsible for their own learning in the television learning situation. They saw a significantly greater need to ask questions as a result of their television experience. While there was a thirteen per cent reduction by the end of the semester, the need to ask questions still remained a significant one. Even though students perceived their need to ask questions of the instructor, they did not view themselves during the fore portion of the semester as needing to participate in some form of class discussion. This need did mature, however, to a significant degree by the end of the semester.

Students perceived no significant difference between the television approach to learning and that of the conventional classroom in understanding the subject matter, nor any noticeable lack of color in the illustrations used, nor any significant difference in the extent to which they felt the teacher was speaking to them personally. From the beginning of the semester there was a noticeably greater need on the part of the students to use the class text than in a conventional classroom learning situation. This need for text use increased significantly, by 189 per cent, at the end of the semester.

As might be expected, the television approach to learning was sufficiently novel at first to provide added interest to the learning situation. But the novelty of the television situation as contributing toward interest was no longer a significant factor by the end of the semester.

Students felt a significant need for a follow-up conference or review during the laboratory period following the television presentation. This need was most intense early in the semester, and while the need for follow-up conferences decreased forty per cent by the end of the semester, the distribution of responses still indicated that a significant need existed.

Students were asked their opinion of the extent to which they felt they were learning drawing over television when compared to the conventional classroom approach. At the fourth week there was a significant opinion that suggested they were learning a little less than they might in a conventional classroom. This opinion changed however by the end of the semester, with no significant difference of opinion expressed at that time between the extent of learning by television and in the conventional classroom.

Teacher Presentation. The second aspect of this investigation

asked students to compare their perception of the instructor's presentation over television with presentations by the same instructor in a conventional classroom situation.

There was significantly more than a normal amount of responses at both the fourth and sixteenth weeks of the semester indicating a strong opinion that over television the understandability of the instructor's speech was as good as or a little better than in the conventional classroom. Students' ability to follow the sequence of the teacher's presentation in the television environment was found to be no different than that in a conventional classroom.

The pace of the television lesson at the fourth week of the semester was perceived as being significantly in excess of that to be found in a conventional classroom. This despite the fact that the instructor made a conscious effort to lessen the pace for the first few television lessons. By the end of the semester, reports of a faster pace of presentation were reduced by 77 per cent. Therefore, once the students learned to adjust to the television learning environment, they perceived no difference in the pace of the teacher's presentation when comparing the television medium to a conventional classroom.

Teaching Materials and Aids. The third aspect of this investigation asked students to react to the adequacy of teaching materials and other aids used in television instruction when compared to their use in a conventional classroom. The television approach to the learning situation apparently has a unique strength in this area of presenting teaching materials and aids. Students indicated as significantly better the television image size of visual aids used than the image size to be expected in a conventional classroom. This favorable opinion increased by 41 per cent during the semester. Also, students indicated as significantly better their ability to identify detail in the visual aids used over television when compared to their ability to identify detail in the same aids in a conventional classroom. Following the semester's trend of opinion on image size, the favorable opinion on detail identification increased 37 per cent by the end of the semester.

While the attitude held by students toward image size and detail identification was very favorable, they did express a significant need for follow-up illustrations on the chalkboard in the drawing laboratory after the television presentation. This need for follow-up illustrations decreased markedly, however, and by the end of the semester the distribution of actual responses corresponded closely with the normal distribution of responses hypothesized for a conventional class-

room. This would seem to suggest that, as students accustomed themselves to the television medium, they saw less and less difference between the television medium and the conventional classroom with reference to the need for follow-up illustrations.

Classroom Physical Facilities. The fourth aspect of this investigation asked students to indicate their reaction to the physical facilities of the television viewing room when compared to the physical facilities found in a conventional classroom. Students perceived no difference between the fixed position of the two television viewing screens and the foci of instruction in a conventional classroom.

Students indicated a significant preference for the more comfortable tablet chair in the viewing room over that of the drawing bench and stool in the drawing room. They perceived no essential difference in their ability to see the demonstration because of the chair and television screen placement when compared to the chair and chalkboard placement in a conventional classroom. Glare on the television screen, primarily a matter of light-control in the viewing room, was essentially no different than that usually present on a chalkboard in a conventional classroom. By the end of the semester, however, the index rose sufficiently to become of significant concern. Adequacy of light for taking notes was another operational problem that was significantly wanting through the entire semester. With sufficient means, this problem of adequate light for note taking can be resolved relatively easily.

Television Instrumentation. The last aspect of this investigation asked students to evaluate the adequacy of the video and audio aspects of the television instrumentation. Generally speaking this is an evaluation of the technical equipment and its control. Variables such as image brightness and image sharpness were rated above average at the fourth week of the semester and significantly above average at the sixteenth week. Lack of distortion was found to be the result of the following factors—quality of instrumentation, quality of installation and quality of operation. Variables such as audio volume and clarity were rated significantly above average for the entire semester. Audio transmission was a far simpler and more highly developed electronic factor in the over-all transmission problem.

Conclusions and Implications

The emphasis of this investigation was on the attitudes of students in a particular class as they perceived instruction by television and compared it to instruction in a conventional classroom. Related to

the attitudinal concerns of the learner was the relationship of the television approach to the quality of the learning situation.

Television should be viewed as an aid to sensory perception in the learning process. Attitudes and values are products of interaction of the individual with his learning environment and as such may be predictive of behavior—in this case, toward the television learning experience.

In order to reduce distractions, some form of supervision appears to be necessary in the viewing room. A careful survey of the viewing room's characteristics should provide guidance for the effective placement of chairs and viewing screens in relation to windows and lighting facilities. While the amount of light required for note taking may differ from that required for adequate viewing, provision can be made to control the light sources in such a manner as to minimize eye strain and provide adequately for note taking, yet to place them so as not to produce reflections on the viewing screens. Students consider comfort as important. A student who is not continually seeking a more comfortable position, owing to lighting or chair design and placement, is likely to be more receptive to instruction.

The television approach to learning has apparently the advantage of requiring a form of involvement which obliges the student to concentrate significantly more on the learning situation than he normally does in a conventional classroom. For the student who does not always see himself as responsible for his own learning, the television approach may be a means whereby attitudinal patterns relating to the learning situation can be improved.

While the student feels a need to ask questions, this need may be viewed as a desirable attribute for additional involvement in the learning situation. A staff assistant stationed regularly in the viewing room would be a valuable aid in answering questions. A remote possibility, not to be ignored as unfeasible, is a two-way communication system between the television studio and the viewing room.

As students become adjusted to the television medium, the need to participate in class discussion increases significantly. Provision should therefore be made for class discussion of problem-solving situations. This involvement can take place as part of a laboratory session; it can be also treated as part of the television presentation, in the form of a discussion between the instructor and a small group of students in the studio. Related to providing for the need to participate in class discussions is the need for follow-up conferences. Much of the

need for conferences could be met by carefully structured class discussions.

Such concerns as distractions, eye-strain, need to ask questions, desire for discussions and follow-up conferences would appear to be causal factors contributing to a negative interest in the subject during the early stages of the semester. Once the student learns to adjust to the television situation, no significantly negative attitudes toward interest in and understanding of the subject matter may be expected. As students become accustomed to the medium of instruction they modify their behavior patterns. Further, the element of novelty found in the television approach during the initial experiences tends to reinforce motivation and to counteract the initial negative attitudes. But the novelty of the new learning situation can not be relied upon to carry over into subsequent semesters.

A growing need to use the class text suggests that as students mature in the subject and are able to draw insights from their learning experience, the text becomes, and is viewed by the student as, an important learning tool.

While the television learning atmosphere is perceived as being significantly less formal than the conventional classroom, there is not a significant lack of personal rapport between instructor and student in the television situation.

Electronic equipment will obviously not improve the instructor's quality of speech, but it will reproduce his speech more faithfully than is possible in the acoustical environment of a conventional class room. Perception of sequential points taught would appear not to be impaired by electronic equipment.

The pace of the first few lessons is critical. The pace of the presentation of material should be markedly reduced at first. Once the students have had an opportunity to adapt their learning behavior to the new learning medium, the instructor may increase his pace to what he believes is appropriate for teaching in that medium.

The television medium of instruction has its forte in the presentation of teaching materials and aids. It must of course be remembered that the television image is dependent upon the quality of instrumentation and installation, control and transmission, and upon the proper adjustment of the broadcasting and receiving equipment. Size of teaching aids as viewed by students is limited only by screen size, regardless of how small or how large the original material or device may be. Therefore minute detail may be enlarged many times with a clarity improbable in the conventional classroom.

In addition to enlarging the operational image of intricate teaching aids, television provides an opportunity for the enlarged viewing of actual demonstrations of technique and the examination of materials and substances with reference to structure, grain, texture and crystalline form. The technique of instrumental manipulation, the detailed operation of a minute technical component, the brush-stroke detail of a painting, the examination of the tissue or the crystalline arrangement of innumerable substances are all more adequately presented to large groups by the television medium. While there may be an initial need for follow-up illustrations in the laboratory, this need decreases significantly as students learn to adapt themselves to the television medium and perceive in a new manner projected aids and materials.

Technical consideration may be given to the "split-image" technique or a two-camera-receiver system providing viewers simultaneously with two different images on separate screens, one of which would display continuously the illustration or item under discussion, the other its development. Although these procedures might encourage divided attention, the student would find little difference from the same tendencies in a conventional classroom where the illustrations would appear on the chalkboard.

Whereas this particular investigation included 41 students, the number of students to be accommodated could be substantially larger. Class size for viewing can be infinitely increased as long as the physical arrangements of the viewing room, including the appropriate distance between student and viewing screen, are duplicated for every forty to fifty students.

The results of this study viewed in its totality indicate that students perceived learning through the use of television as "about the same" as that occurring in a conventional classroom. For certain aspects of the learning situation television has some immediate advantages. It should not, however, be considered as a method of instruction but rather as a sensory aid which, if used properly, may enrich the total learning situation. It has a valuable potential as a teaching medium in higher education capable of aiding the instructional process at an adequate level for the ever increasing number of students to be served.

⁴ Evaluation included: (1) comparison of the mean index of responses for each question; (2) the significant difference between an hypothesized normal distribution of responses and the actual distribution of responses for each question; and (3) determination whether any significant homogeneity existed between the frequency distributions of the fourth and sixteenth weeks on each question. Detailed data are available from the office.

Presidential Aid

MAX S. MARSHALL

A president's lot is not a happy one, says a teacher with wide experience of both presidents and faculties, but the fault may not be wholly in their stars

Several years ago I ventured to prescribe the rules for being a dean.¹ Everyone on the faculty of any campus knows how to be a dean and has exceptionally clear ideas of how *not* to be a dean. Since most of these well studied opinions were not reaching the deans, I tried to carry the message, without fear or favor. Omitting the fear was an error. As it happened, a new dean was put over me at the moment of publication. By rushing the first copy to him and assuring him that, not foreseeing his appointment, I had not been aware of how wrong I could be, I escaped with a black eye. He was a former boxing champion.

In that paper, again speaking in general, I proposed a similar clarification of the job for presidents, should an occasion ever arise when an editor and I could leave town with sufficient speed. The situation with deans and presidents is parallel. Not only the faculty but even deans know how the president should function and are always keenly aware of his mistakes. Despite an obvious knowledge of the qualifications, as a member of the faculty for many years, I am willing to pass up the presidency. So this communication might as well be undertaken by me as by anyone else.

Presidents are a horribly stuffy lot, but they realize that they are expected to be so. Underneath they may well be human, and possibly their antics are in a large measure defensive. Quite likely they need help rather more than definitions of duties. I shall endeavor to keep this in mind, if situations permit.

I am qualified for this task not only as a member of the faculty but by experience, having known some fifteen presidents, families sometimes included. To name them would be unkind. Besides, some of them are still rather handy with a tomahawk. There was, or is, for instance:

President A, who coasted serenely, letting nature take its course—not a bad idea, considering.

President B, who, after setting up the key word of "leadership" for the campus, made it clear that following was even better than leading, unless you agreed with him.

President C, who boomed along on the theory that the frankness of a blood relative would avoid trouble, which, save for a few bloody carcasses, it did.

President D was inaugurated with, and perhaps because of, an awe of the mighty academic minds around him, but he soon learned that he could outwit them with his cerebral cortex tied behind him.

President E had an A-1 school but it lagged a bit in the general procession because he was fully endowed with that trait dangerous for presidents, integrity.

President F blasted the roof off his campus, which needed it—possibly because as soon as he was inaugurated he wisely set the date of his resignation two years later.

President G, whose chief characteristic was far from unique except in degree, had a talent for saying "yes" to anything that brought in dollars.

President H put business details on so grandiose a stage that his teachers and students, surrounded by marble, underwent a fatal intellectual starvation.

President I became entangled in a scandal, widely discussed in the best halls and laboratories, despite the absence of factual data, so that he was bounced.

These presidents are mentioned to prove that I am not bound to one time, one campus or one experience. My illustrations are or were actual men. An interest in self-preservation is clearly farthest from my thoughts: my concern is entirely with fair play.

To discuss the selection of a president is almost a waste of time. Two groups go prospecting for candidates—who are not supposed to apply: they make a show of looking the other way until they are tapped rather sharply on the shoulder.

A committee of the faculty, well hidden, because the air of knowing intrigue is played to the hilt, is given all the authority in the world: it can recommend. Like all advice, recommendations are free and harmless. With profound seriousness, the committee seeks an academic man—one who understands the academic mind, the problems of the faculty. Those who might understand these things are probably getting better incomes as practicing psychiatrists. The faculty group has elements of the tempest in a teapot.

The trustees or regents do the real selecting. They play this game of Russian roulette as they play poker—cards close to their chests.

Academic arguments about the desirability of business acumen, big names or professional talents do not bother this august group much. It wants one man, among the few available, not an ideal to put on a pedestal. This group does not recommend; it decides. It does some careful listening, making it vulnerable to judicious talk by clever alumni, faculty politicians or friends of the management. That the president selected may be almost anything has already been illustrated. This is probably a good thing. Faculty bodies, ever anxious to reduce life to a formula, would like to standardize the office of the president. If they ever succeed, the campuses or the presidents had better give up. Most presidents would make wonderful salesmen, ministers or chairmen of boards of directors—and most campuses would make excellent parks, complete with playgrounds.

Outwardly the eventual inauguration of the new president is a colorful show, not unlike a good gangster funeral. The new man makes a speech in which every hundredth word is "freedom" or some approximation thereof. If he is as wise as he is supposed to be—and it happens—he will know that freedom for him is over. He enters a dungeon with a thousand doors, all locked, and no key in his possession.

Even before inauguration, men and women, perhaps including his own children, try to pin him down, to pin back his ears and to stick needles into him. His thoughts, his plans and how he will perform are supposed to roll forth effortlessly in words of one syllable, covering events that have not arrived, topics of which he never heard, and items so small a child would not worry about them or so broad in their implications that unconsidered commitment would settle his term of office then and there. This accounts for the noteworthy facility presidents acquire for saying nothing in a great many words.

Of the several classes of niggers, one of the most annoying is the professional academic sycophant. Members of the faculty who will provide honest answers to questions are avoided both by the faculty and by the president, but by him reluctantly. Honest members are ostracized. For this reason, the only way the president can approach them safely is as a casual neighbor or under some effective disguise. The professional academic sycophant, however, knows all and "has the confidence of the faculty." Look out, Mr President! No one has anything like the confidence of the faculty. Faculties attain unanimity only on raises in pay, improved pensions, less work, more

help, better buildings, more sabbaticals, better parking and other items of similarly transparent motivation.

Another expert nagger is the slaphappy alumnus. He also claims great power. With him the president need only be wary, long on endurance, jovial with first names and free with handshakes. The toughest minds among alumni have graduated and cannot be reached through ballyhoo for the old campus; those who can be reached are happy with two of the president's most ample commodities, high ideals and good fellowship. Any president who really has high ideals might as well withdraw as soon as possible, for otherwise the frustrations will knock him out in a year. And any president genuinely loaded with good fellowship will soon be headed for cirrhosis and collapse from exhaustion. Save in terms of political exigency, good fellowship takes endless time and gets exactly nowhere.

Occasionally a man who gets to be president is a chump who thinks that he is going to make decisions: others do the work, but he sits in the switch tower and presses the buttons. He will get over it. A president never makes any decisions. He can of course endorse the recommendations of a committee or of a dean who is approving of a committee. He does not rubberstamp the antics of these laboring word-slingers—far from it. When he disagrees with a recommendation he simply submits it to another committee or to a junior officer, who is the goat. The point is that he approves. He never decides; that is fatal. It labels the dictator. Everyone in the place, including the janitor, must feel that he is a factor in every outcome.

To be sure, this causes some presidents to realize that, since they are prohibited from deciding anything, approval of whatever comes along makes like simple and pleasant. This, Mr President, is also fatal. You are between Scylla and Charybdis; the fires of Hades lie ahead and a serpent of the sea is at your heels. If you decide instead of approving, you are too authoritative, but if you approve instead of standing on your own feet, you are current (*sic*) jelly. The commoners must be kept guessing.

The only real answer to this dilemma is to accept a salient fact—that the president will be blamed for whatever anyone dislikes, even if he never heard of it; and that even items which are generally approved will bring curses on his head that will make him sure that he is in a minority. He can forget about majorities. The losing side will yell louder than any majority every time.

Naggers can be kept under partial control by setting up barriers, by knowing when to be out of the office, by having a close personal

secretarial guard, by permitting no friendships whatever and by developing an instinct for spotting the pests when unavoidably in the open.

Chosen because they are ambitious, presidents must at least keep up appearances of such or they will be dubbed freaks. Just why *President E*, for example, should not be respected more than other presidents, I cannot say. Integrity, perhaps, has never held its own against ambition.

By ambition I refer only to the campus, of course—nothing mean and personal. Between salaries, entertainment funds, travel allowances, a house and other perquisites, the president is expected to be above personal ambition. He has already arrived.

For the campus, ambition has no limits. The president is supposed to foster all moves which lead to more students, bigger budgets, more buildings, more courses, more victories, more big names, more faculty members, more boasts—more of everything but scandals. Even these may sometimes be welcome. They have entertainment value, and the number of free printed column inches is almost as much a measure of presidential stature as is the number of published papers for faculty standing.

Most presidents seem to find the policy of expansion not only easy to adopt but worthy of their best efforts. Chambers of commerce and realty boards long ago discovered the elegant simplicity of: "Anything that expands our scope is good." Somehow with a college president we might have hoped that the rule would read: "That which expands the institution may or may not be good for it."

The major racket on the campus today, for example, is Operation Granteater. So many people have cash to give away that not a few organizations hire what should be called Chief Spenders, if the title were not too forthright for the modern era. Dashing about the country on expense accounts, wining and dining their customers, these persons are looking for faculty men and women who might be induced to accept their money. Though they often seem to ignore presidents, they are well aware of the presidential attitude and the need for his eventual approval. The unpredictable monies so collected on a given campus nowadays may exceed the sums secured from regular sources—endowments, tuitions and legislatures.

Rather a canny lot, presidents have tried to dodge this onus on their consciences. Once upon a time any incoming cash had to pass through their hands, and they could decline tainted money, gaining

prestige rather than losing face. Now virtually anything which gets past the scared portals, put up by the class of '88, will never get out again if it has a dollar sign attached, so the president has to save face some other way. As he must endorse any incoming monies, a ritual is established, complete with forms and channels, which permits him to overlook or oversee, as occasion demands. That the corporate check is obviously given to avoid payment of taxes—meaning that other taxpayers have to pay this added amount—or that the university's facilities and manpower are being bought as the cheapest way to get an answer to a practical question may not escape the president. Under modern morals, less conspicuous than modern mores, he shrugs and lets those who want the money to spend have their own grasping way.

Soon after the war, when money began to be tossed to the academic breezes, donation became such a thriving business that politicians discovered the publicity and good will to be purchased with other people's money. From a bottomless chest kept filled by the taxpayer, federal funds began to roll. Call it defense, greatest good of the greatest number, votes in the right quarter, or what you will, the easy dispensing of federal funds now overshadows both other external sources of grants and normal sources of funds used for the founding and maintenance of the campus. Someday a president with gumption is going to strike the right key in returning campuses to teachers and students, to parents and employers—risking his neck but finding himself famous.

But money cannot speak for ideals, souls, culture and the educated man—those ethereal gods of the campus at the head of which stands the president. Ambition has other angles. Courses and schools lend themselves to ambition. They can be extended *ad infinitum*, a polite form of *ad nauseam*. The wider the scope, the bigger the school, budget and faculty, the more persons are interested, and the greater the power over the community.

One form that this takes is called "adult education" or extension work. In just a few years this expansion has led to special buildings, purchases of resort areas for classrooms, elaborate courses costing students fifty dollars and more a day, courses in pure hokum built around a famous name, courses with a vacation pull—in short, more stunts than a travel agent could put together with a binful of folders. Even telling a stranger the direction to Chinatown can be called "education" if you choose. Find clever and unscrupulous persons to

capitalize on this, add a little service and some publicity, and ambition can have another fling.

There is also ambition in ideology, the game in which the president is usually the leading light and past master. His campus, whatever it may be, is the leader of them all.

To fail to indoctrinate a student in the faith that the campus is the center of the universe, or university of man, is heresy. All presidents appear to agree on this. The world is divided into x campuses, each the best of the lot. You can spot an Oxbridge graduate in five minutes or less—but this holds for half the other colleges. A few require six or eight minutes. The best-known chemist in the country, the largest dormitory system, the greatest library, the top basketball team and so on: campus headlines and presidential speeches proclaim an endless self-praise. It gets to be tiresome to hear and worrisome to watch, for gullible students are wilfully misled into a false sense of values. Now and then one wonders if perhaps education is primarily a matter of playing on man's naiveté, particularly on the gullibility of youth. A well-educated person should be less gullible than the average—but did you ever try to sell encyclopedias to professors and doctors? Stick to them and you will pay off the mortgage in a couple of years.

Somehow society has either made puppets of presidents or hires puppets for presidents. Young folk who emerge from the roseate stage are inclined to condemn presidents, but I am not quite ready to do so. No doubt puppets are occasionally hired, or weaklings too easily become puppets. But I have a feeling that most presidents keep their souls wrapped in integrity and hidden in the attic, in a teakwood box with a padlock, to be inspected only when the going is roughest, and then in solitude in the dark of night. Society, perhaps even wives, must not hear of this.

If, once in a while, you hope that a president will come straight from the attic and speak, keep listening. The potential is probably there, and one day perhaps a president will become famous for combining integrity with effective oratory. He will announce that the campus will henceforth stand for culture and education, returning all else to the community where it belongs. He will acknowledge a responsibility to that community, for which the institution exists, and show that he is not selling out to outsiders, government included. He will tell his students that leadership implies followership, and that neither dictators nor sheep are worthy of approval. He will point out to them that education means primarily preparation, and

that the work of the world is done off campuses and not on them. He will signify that he hopes that his school may occasionally win unsought approval from other schools. Even more important, he will suggest that those on his campus may well devote some respect and admiration to other schools. But he will say that the perpetual boasting so common on campuses will not occur on his: too many things remain to be done.

He may even proclaim a policy. He may say, for instance, that education is worthy of the name only when it has solid meat in it. If it qualifies in this way, it has then to be tested for purity—a combination of knowledge and intellectual analysis and challenge which leads to wisdom, without particular regard to the work of the world. This, he will indicate, is the true function of education. And he will add that the more of it the better the world will be, and the better will those who participate perform in what they choose to do. He will explain that training is something apart from education—inevitably later but neither higher nor lower—and will prove that the best man is he who puts the best training on top of the best education. In forthright fashion he will proclaim that training is not in principle a job for the campus—a start in a few occupations may be provided, but educational background and not training is the educational goal.

Come to think of it, the lot of a president is not a happy one. He needs sympathy and support, and I hope he gets it. But meanwhile a little readjustment might be promoted—permitting culture, integrity and even reasonable modesty to be retained as virtues rather than transmuted into vices.

¹ "How to be a Dean," AAUP Bulletin, 42:636-43, winter 1956

A Liberal Arts Program Re-Appraised

JOHN E. HORNER

*A small college seeks to meet today's challenge
to liberal education with a radically different
academic calendar and a more flexible curriculum*

In the long history of the liberal arts college, tradition and a lock-step pedagogical procedure have often characterized the educational approach of this kind of institution. Present developments require that liberal arts colleges examine their curricula and amend them to meet current needs and demands. One liberal arts college, which was established in 1827, has thoroughly studied its academic program and has adopted a forward-looking and dynamic academic program.

Hanover College has altered its academic program from two points of view—its academic calendar and the course structure of its curriculum. The college has chosen to abandon the traditional two-semester system and has adopted a three-term pattern in which the terms will be fourteen weeks, fourteen weeks and five weeks in length. Although other institutions have adopted a three-term pattern, these colleges and universities have evolved three terms of an equal number of weeks. The Hanover academic year 14-14-5 weeks contains approximately the same number of weeks as the two-semester system but the distribution of weeks is obviously different. It is believed that the unique third term of five weeks is an original development in higher education. The first fourteen-week term of the Hanover Plan will run from mid-September to mid-December; the second term from January to mid-April; the third term from late April to early June.

The rationale for altering the academic calendar relates to a changing educational philosophy concerning the content and implementation of the course structure. The Hanover Plan rests on the contention that there is currently in American higher education too much

teaching and not enough learning. The new academic calendar, in combination with revised instructional procedures, tends to put more of the burden of learning on the student rather than on the professor. Likewise, it is believed that the new curricular approach will permit students to receive education in depth as well as in breadth. Unity and cohesion in the liberal arts should also result.

The academic obligation for the student in the Hanover Plan is based on course credits rather than semister-hour credits. Students are obliged to take seven courses a year and 28 in four years. Half of these courses (plus one course in physical education) are required and half are electives. Three courses are taken during each of the two fourteen-week terms and one course is taken in the five-week term. Similarly, instructors will teach three courses in the two fourteen-week terms and one course in the five-week term. Courses have the equivalent of five class meetings a week.

The unusual five-week term, in which students take only one course, gives the curriculum greater flexibility. Since students will be studying one course during this term (which avoids conflict with other courses), off-campus study will be a frequent occurrence. For example, it is planned that some Spanish classes will spend time in Mexico and Europe; political science students will be permitted to study in Washington, Indianapolis and other centers of government; advanced students will work individually at large university libraries; and science students will engage in cooperative programs with private industry. Likewise, the five-week term will permit students to pursue serious research and uninterrupted independent study. Although there will be many opportunities for off-campus study, most students will remain on campus, engaged in intensive concentration on one course.

The Hanover Plan has altered markedly some of the traditional elements in the liberal arts curriculum. The institution believes that the freshman year of college repeats much of the content of the senior year in high school and is not challenging enough, particularly for the more gifted student. Hence Hanover freshmen will be exposed to some studies which are familiar to them and to other courses which are not so familiar.

The new curriculum assumes that philosophy is the basis for many other courses in the academic program. Hence philosophy is a required course for freshmen. The traditional course in freshman English has been dropped and a course in writing-speech is required at the sophomore level. An integrated program in sociology-phy-

chology and economics-political-science will be offered to freshmen. Science and language have also become integral elements in the lower-class program. The requirement in science attempts to give balance between the biological and the physical sciences. The course in science attempts to fill the greatest void which the student has in the freshman year. It then obligates the student to take a science *in the opposite field* in the senior year in order to build a balanced educational experience in the sciences.

The language requirement dictates that the student have a minimum of two courses in the same language. The use of various testing devices, however, permits students to advance in linguistics at a pace based on their abilities and their measure of achievement. Advanced placement tests and other tests will be employed in languages and in other disciplines, both for placement in courses and exemption from courses.

Hanover College has always had strong academic courses in the Judaeo-Christian and the Graeco-Roman traditions. The program now adopted has added a new focal point in the study of civilizations. The curriculum requires all students to take a course in non-Western studies in the junior year. It is hoped that this requirement will give students more than a handshaking acquaintance with some of the emerging cultures and civilizations in the world today.

In addition to the above-mentioned courses, the Hanover Plan also provides for required courses in fine arts, history, mathematics, physical education, religion and world literature. The number of term courses required is fifteen from a total graduation requirement of 29 term courses.

While independent and individual study is emphasized throughout the four-year curriculum, the senior year includes a senior colloquium and a senior seminar. The senior colloquium attempts to unify the details of the liberal arts curriculum so that the student sees the integrating and the broadening factors of the curriculum. Similarly, the senior seminar affords the opportunity to bring cohesion to the student's area of academic concentration. Thus a better understanding of both the broad concepts of liberal education and the field of specialized education should be forthcoming.

It has long been a problem for liberal arts colleges to bring both depth and breadth to the academic experience of students. To solve this problem, the Hanover Plan requires students to take the essential courses of a forward-looking liberal arts curriculum, as well as providing the opportunity for educational breadth through a sound

elective system. These required and elective courses, together with the fact that students take a maximum of three courses (or one course) at one time, should ensure a vital and stimulating educational experience.

This program also automatically reduces the number of separate course preparations for instructors and hence reduces teaching loads. The instructor does not have more than three separate preparations at a time. Likewise, the new pattern reduces the possibility of establishing "departmental empires," long a problem for institutions of higher learning. Through this program, course offerings have been automatically reduced by thirty per cent.

Other administrative economies relate to the reduction of expensive advanced courses. Of necessity, there must be a concentration of instructional effort on the basic courses with larger enrolments. More students will be serviced through this academic framework, but not at the expense of sound instruction nor with neglect of the "major." In brief, a more effective and efficient utilization of instructional time should result.

The Hanover Plan attempts to assimilate the best of the traditional liberal arts curriculum, yet tries to shape the academic program in such a way that students may effectively take their places in an age of anxiety and transition. It addresses major instructional and administrative problems which can be neglected no longer by college administrators and faculties.

THE HANOVER PLAN

Required Term Courses

Fine Arts	1
Hebrew-Christian Thought	1
History	1
Language	2
Mathematics	1
Natural Science	2
Non-Western Studies	1
Philosophy	1
Physical Education	1
Social Sciences	2
World Literature	1
Writing-Speech	1
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Total	15

Total courses required for graduation: 29

Minimum major: 5 courses

Maximum major: 8 courses

FRESHMAN YEAR		SOPHOMORE YEAR		JUNIOR YEAR		SENIOR YEAR	
Name	Number of Courses	Name	Number of Courses	Name	Number of Courses	Name	Number of Courses
REQUIRED OF ALL STUDENTS	Philosophy Physical Education (in the two 14-week periods)	Hebrew-Christian Thought History Physical Education (in the two 14-week periods) Writing-Speech	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ 1	Non-Western Studies World Literature	1 1	Independent Study Senior Colloquium (At the option of the department these may be combined, thus permitting an additional major course)	1 1 1
OPTIONS	Fine Arts Language Mathematics Natural Science Social Sciences Elective	Fine Arts Language Major Mathematics Natural Science Social Sciences Elective	6	Major Electives	5	Major Senior Elective Free Electives	1 1 3

*It is recommended that these two courses not be taken at the same time.

**The Senior Elective will be chosen from sciences in the opposite general area from that of the freshman science. If a student presents sufficient experience in both the biological and the physical sciences, he will choose an elective in either humanities or social science, whichever is his weaker area.

For each term a student may also take two activity courses, such as band, choir, forensics, organ, piano, painting, or play production. These are given the credit of one-fourth of a regular term course. The student may apply toward graduation four of these courses, in addition to the credit for physical education.

By examination through College Entrance Examination Board Achievement Tests or comparable examinations given by Hanover College, a student may present evidence of having satisfactorily met any of the above requirements.

Hoary Holyoke Hoax

WALTER CROSBY EILLS

A Parable for Pressmen

The 18,000,000 copies of *The Reader's Digest* for September 1960 (p. 56) contain the following alleged information about early regulations at Mount Holyoke College:

Times Have Changed

The South Hadley seminary, which later became Mt. Holyoke College, was determined there would be no Jezebels within *its* gates. Here are a few of its rules:

Admission. No young lady shall become a member of this school who cannot kindle a fire, wash potatoes and repeat the multiplication table.

Outfit. No cosmetics, perfumeries or fancy soap will be allowed on the premises.

Exercise. Every member of this school shall walk at least a mile every day, unless a freshet, earthquake or some other calamity prevent.

Company. No member of this school is expected to have any male acquaintances unless they are retired missionaries or agents of some benevolent society.

Time at Mirror. No member of this institution shall tarry before the mirror more than three consecutive minutes.

Reading. No member of this school shall devote more than one hour each week to miscellaneous reading. *The Atlantic Monthly*, Shakespeare, Scott's novels, *Robinson Crusoe* and immoral works are strictly forbidden. *The Boston Recorder*, *Missionary Herald* and Washington's Farewell Address are earnestly recommended for light reading.

—Gerald Kennedy, *A Reader's Notebook* (Harper)

What is the source of these rules? How did they originate? How have they come to be disseminated to millions of readers in scores of different publications, particularly during the past third of a century? Cannot the question of their authenticity be finally settled in 1961, the centennial of their first publication?

Considerable academic sleuthing has been required in the attempt to answer these questions, with numerous blind alleys or dead ends en route.

It will be noted that publication of these rules is attributed by *The Reader's Digest* to Gerald Kennedy, who is Methodist Bishop of Los Angeles and author or compiler of a dozen books in the last decade. They are found, exactly as quoted above, in *A Reader's Notebook*, published in 1953 (pp. 81-82), but their source is not indicated in that volume. A letter from Bishop Kennedy says only that he is sorry that he does not know where he secured them. *Blind Alley No. 1*. Incidentally, there never was a South Hadley Seminary. "Mount Holyoke Female Seminary" at South Hadley was chartered in 1836 and opened in 1837.

Another Version

It so happens that another version of these same rules, under the same heading, "Times Have Changed," was also published in *The Reader's Digest* almost a quarter century earlier. In August 1937, exactly a century after Mount Holyoke Seminary opened, it said:

The following rules were in force in Mount Holyoke College in 1837:

No young lady shall become a member of Mount Holyoke Seminary who cannot kindle a fire, wash potatoes, repeat the multiplication table, and at least two-thirds of the shorter catechism.

Every member of the school shall walk a mile a day unless a freshet, earthquake, or some other calamity prevent.

No young lady shall devote more than an hour a day to miscellaneous reading.

No young lady is expected to have gentleman acquaintances unless they are returned missionaries or agents of benevolent societies.

Disregarding the fact that there was no Mount Holyoke *College* in 1837, nor for a half century thereafter, it will be noted, of course, that these rules are an abbreviated form of the ones published again by *The Reader's Digest* in 1960, except that ability to repeat the shorter catechism is added to the requirements for admission. In this case, however, they were credited to *School Activities*, a monthly educational magazine. An examination of the files of that journal shows that they were published in the above form in its issue of March 1937 (p. 309). The editor of *School Activities*, Dr Harry C. McCown, wrote as follows, 28 November 1960:

The source is the ever-ready "Exchange" which can mean anything under the sun. I looked in my speech cards (I have frequently used it) and

found no specific reference source. I thought I might have used it in my *Fools and Foolishness* book, but I found I hadn't. So I cannot authenticate it. . . . Sorry I cannot help you more.

Blind alley No. 2

Error Uncorrected

In reply to a letter by the writer to *The Reader's Digest*, calling attention to the hoax in its 1960 publication, the editors wrote, 18 October 1960:

The Digest itself printed the set of rules first in 1937, was corrected then, and admitted the error.

A search through the issues of 1937 and 1938, however, while showing the publication in August 1937, as quoted above, failed to reveal any admission of the "error" in any later issue. In response to a request for further reference to place of publication, the editors wrote, 16 November 1960:

Apparently our October 18 letter was not quite as clear as it might have been. The first time we fell for that historic set of Mt. Holyoke rules, the only admission of the error was on the staff level. We did not, so to speak, apologize in print.

This is indeed an ingenious way of squirming out of the statement in their earlier letter that the *Digest* had "admitted the error." Normally this would be interpreted as admitting and correcting the error in print, even if not with the prominence given to the earlier quotation. The editors indicated no intention of explaining the erroneous character of their latest publication, in 1960, although the writer and others had called it to their attention. They did say, however, rather lamely: "Perhaps later on we will be able to publish a collection of such hoaxes that have gradually come to be a part of the national folk lore." Does it not seem a little unfortunate, and hardly in accordance with accepted journalistic ethics, to allow such an absurd canard regarding an educational institution to go uncorrected among the many millions of readers claimed for each issue of *The Reader's Digest*? Or to classify it as "folk lore" to be corrected—perhaps—at some unspecified time in the future?

Publication in Harvard Crimson

It seems highly probable if not quite certain, however, that both Bishop Kennedy and *School Activities* obtained their versions of the burlesque regulations from newspaper reports which were widely circulated by national press services in the United States a decade

earlier, and which stemmed from a story in the Harvard University student paper, *The Harvard Crimson*, of 13 December 1927. This story, in full, follows:

*Harvard Student Had Rigorous Religious Training in
1734—Girls at Mt. Holyoke Seminary Washed Potatoes*

The following enlightening article from the Vermont Cynic shows the vicissitudes through which our forebears went in attending Harvard and Mt. Holyoke in days gone by.

Students who feel the reins of faculty supervision somewhat harsh and undemocratic, who stand in dread of the possibility of compulsory chapel, and who protest loudly at the meager allowance of cuts afforded by the department heads, might sleep a little easier and enjoy life a little more thoroughly after reading a few excerpts from the Harvard College regulations of 1734. Some of the most interesting—when viewed from this distant perspective—follow.

"Sec. VI. All the Scholars shall, at Sunset in the evening preceding the Lord's Day, retire to their chambers, and not unnecessarily leave them; and all disorders on said evenings shall be punished as violations of the Sabbath are. And every Scholar, on the Lord's Day, shall carefully apply himself to the Duties of Religion and Piety. And whosoever shall profane said Day by unnecessary Business or Visiting, Walking on the Common, or in the Streets or Fields in the town of Cambridge, or by any sort of Diversion before sunset—shall be fined 10 shillings.

"Sec. IX. Undergraduates shall repeat at least the main heads of the forenoon and afternoon sermons on Lord's Day evenings in the Hall, and such as are Delinquent shall be punished—not exceeding three shillings."

But if 1734 at Harvard seems long ago and far away, consider one of Wesleyan's younger sisters—or girl friends, rather. Considerably less than a century ago the following regulations were more or less observed at Mt. Holyoke:

"1. No young lady shall become a member of Mt. Holyoke Seminary who cannot kindle a fire, wash potatoes, repeat the multiplication table, and at least two-thirds of the shorter catechism.

"2. Every member of the school shall walk at least one mile a day, unless a freshet, earthquake, or some other calamity prevent. The bounds to the north are marked by a stake, also those to the south and west.

"4. No young lady shall devote more than one hour a day to miscellaneous reading. *The Atlantic Monthly*, *Shakespeare*, *Scott's Works*, *Robinson Crusoe* and other immoral works are strictly prohibited. *The Boston Record*, *Missionary Herald*, *Doddridge's Rise and Progress* and *Washington's Farewell Address* are earnestly recommended for light reading.

"5. No young lady is expected to have any gentleman acquaintances, unless

they are returned missionaries or agents of benevolent societies. Daguerrotypes and plaster busts are also prohibited."

It will be recognized at once that the four rules given in the *School Activities* version are based on the ones printed in the *Crimson*, the latter two in much abbreviated form. Of the six rules in the later Bishop Kennedy form, however, two, "Outfit" and "Time at Mirror," are not drawn from that source. It may be noted that the Harvard rules are dated 1784, but that the alleged ones at *Mount Holyoke* were said to have been in force "considerably less than a century ago"—a restriction carelessly ignored in subsequent publications, as will appear later.

These weird parodies of Mount Holyoke rules were not a product of the fertile imagination of *Crimson* editors, as has been suggested by various writers. The introductory paragraph clearly shows that they merely copied them from *The Vermont Cynic*. The *Cynic* was then and still is the weekly student paper of the University of Vermont. The reply to a request addressed to the reference librarian of that institution indicates that, with certain minor variations from the *Crimson* version, the story was published in the *Cynic* only four days earlier, 9 December 1927, under the caption: "Ancient Harvard Regulations Reveal 'The Good Old Days' As Not So Good." But it gives no source for the story. *Blind Alley No. 3.*

The reference, however, to "Wesleyan's younger sisters—or girl friends, rather" suggests that the story might have originated with the student paper at neighboring Wesleyan University, Connecticut. This reference seems rather pointless and inappropriate in either a Harvard or a Vermont publication. But the reference librarian of Wesleyan University says that after spending "considerable time going through Wesleyan publications" she could find no trace of the Holyoke story. *Blind Alley No. 4.*

Widespread Influence of the Crimson Story

But if the actual origin of *The Harvard Crimson's* story cannot be determined, its ramifications were widespread. Regardless of its ultimate source, but with the added prestige of Harvard publication, it was immediately accepted as authentic and given much wider local and even national publicity, reaching far beyond the boundaries of Harvard Yard.

The day after its publication in the *Crimson*, the story was taken up by the *Boston Herald* which printed it 14 December 1927, under the heading:

**"Washing Potatoes Once Entrance
Requirement at Mt. Holyoke College."**

Its lead paragraph:

A recent survey of the college rules that restricted the conduct of students at Harvard and Mt. Holyoke in the early days revealed that at . . . Mt. Holyoke girls were required to wash potatoes as an entrance requirement, it was learned yesterday. . . . The rules governing Mount Holyoke girls were as follows:

The *Herald* then quotes the *Crimson's* rule No. 1, omits No. 2, shortens No. 4 and quotes No. 5 in full. The original form of the rules in the *Crimson* did not say that the girls were "required to wash potatoes," only that they should have the *ability* to do so. But this minor inaccuracy did not disturb the headline writer or the rewrite man on the *Herald* staff.

Two days later, December 16th, the *Boston Post* headlined its similar story:

**"College No Fun in Year 1734: Harvard
and Mount Holyoke Rules Most Strict."**

Its lead was as follows:

Supporters of the more progressive movement towards the liberalization of college education and the giving of greater personal freedom to the movements of college students probably would gasp with surprise upon hearing of some of the restrictions that were placed upon the personal liberty of college students 200 years ago. A list of student regulations that were enforced at Harvard and at Mount Holyoke back in 1734 was unearthed at Cambridge yesterday and showed that the college student of two centuries ago was subjected to some of the most extraordinary regulations.

Of course the only *unearthing at Cambridge* that was done "yesterday" was the publication in the *Crimson*, three days earlier—fully credited to a Vermont source. Much more important, however, was the *Post* writer's blind or careless ignorance of the fact that Mount Holyoke did not exist, even in the form of a seminary, in 1734 nor for more than a century later. He gaily pushes back the *Crimson's* story of "considerably less than a century ago" to more than a century before Mount Holyoke existed.

National Publicity for the Hoax

But such a story was judged too good to be restricted to the local Boston papers. The press bureaus took it up—at least the more bizarre sections of it attributed to Mount Holyoke—and spread

it widely throughout the country. Writing in the *Mount Holyoke Alumnae Quarterly* in April 1928, Bertha E. Blakely, college librarian, says that the Mount Holyoke press bureau had already received clippings of the story from 49 papers published in 22 different states. Doubtless it was also published in others not covered by the college's clipping service. Twenty-four of the Holyoke clippings, credited to the United Press, omitted any mention of Harvard except to say that the Harvard archives furnished these Mount Holyoke rules of 1734. Only one of these papers changed the date to 1834. The story sent out by the National News Service, printed in at least seven states, began: "Pity if you will the poor co-ed of A.D. 1734." A third form of the syndicated story was headed "Ancient Female Conduct," but did assign the rules to the year 1834. The burlesque rules were also printed in numerous university and college papers, usually without comment.

Do these differences of a full century in dating the so-called rules of conduct indicate a slight lack of historical perspective among the journalists of the day? Or do they reflect an attempted sense of humor of some editors and writers and their estimates of what the gullible public would accept without question if only it appeared in print?

But Miss Blakely herself seems not to have read carefully enough the *Crimson* article whose ramifications she reports in such detail, for she says: "We imagine that the Harvard *Crimson* copied some yellowed manuscript with tongue in cheek, but perhaps did not expect to spread the hoax quite so widely." And Bennett Cerf, who had reprinted the alleged rules in his column "Trade Winds" in the *Saturday Review of Literature*, said in that column for 31 May 1937: "Apparently they were concocted from whole cloth by a forgotten wit on the Harvard *Crimson*." The introductory paragraph of the *Crimson* story, however, clearly attributes it to *The Vermont Cynic*, not to some yellowed manuscript or would-be Harvard wit.

Immorality and Anachronism

In the *Crimson* version, "The Atlantic Monthly, Shakespeare, Scott's Works, Robinson Crusoe and other immoral works are strictly prohibited." In *The Reader's Digest*—Kennedy version—the word "other" has been omitted, and Scott's works changed to Scott's novels; but *The Atlantic Monthly*, although no longer characterized by implication as *immoral*, still leads the list of reading "strictly forbidden" for the serious-minded Mount Holyoke girl. The original publication

of the rules, however, a century earlier (to be given later), includes the phrase "other immoral works."

But the press association disseminators of this burlesque evidently failed to notice the anachronism of including the now century-old *Atlantic Monthly* in Mount Holyoke's feminine *index expurgatorius*. As indicated above, most of the press services dated these alleged rules 1734—more than a century before either Mount Holyoke or the *Atlantic* were in existence. Only a few credited them to 1834. In either case, however, neither authors, press association writers nor copy editors seem to have noticed the utter incongruity of including the *Atlantic* on this *Index* when its first number, under the editorship of James Russell Lowell, did not appear until November 1857—almost a quarter century after 1834 and a century and a quarter after 1734!

If the 1734 date be accepted—the one far more widely disseminated—it would rule out also Scott's novels (*Waverly*, 1814), or even Scott himself, born 1771. On the other hand, of those "recommended for light reading," the aspiring co-ed of 1734, if there had been any such at that early date, would have had considerable difficulty in securing copies of *The Boston Record* (established 1884), *Missionary Herald* (established 1805), Doddridge's *Rise and Progress of Religion in the Soul* (Boston 1771), or Washington's *Farewell Address* (1783).

Even the co-ed of 1834 (if Mount Holyoke had been in existence at that date) would have been unable to read *The Atlantic Monthly* or *The Boston Record* (1884-1921). The latter, however, is perhaps some editor's "correction" for *The Boston Recorder*, a denominational weekly published from 1816 to 1867, forerunner of *The Congregationalist*. The Kennedy version gives it as the *Recorder*, the *Crimson* version as the *Record*.

Editorial Treatment

Most astonishing of all, however, was the serious treatment given the subject in a long editorial, almost a column in length, in *The Sun* of New York on 30 January 1928. Under the caption, "Stern Days at Holyoke," it began:

A newspaper dispatch from Boston tells of the discovery in Harvard archives of the original rules for the conduct of girls at Mount Holyoke, which Mary Lyon opened as a seminary at South Hadley, Massachusetts, in 1837, and which became a college by a charter issued in 1888. What will perhaps strike a modern girl as the queerest thing about the ancient regulations is the fact that the entrance requirements forbade the admission of any girls "who cannot kindle a fire, repeat the multiplication

table, and at least two-thirds of the Shorter Catechism." These prescriptions, however, contain within themselves the germs of much history of the use of women's colleges.

The undesigned editorial writer continues with a rather lengthy and appreciative sketch of the education of girls from that in the earliest colonial towns, where it "was frowned on," through the "female seminaries" established by Emma Willard in 1821 and by Catherine Beecher in 1822 to the founding of Mount Holyoke by Mary Lyon. Then, with scholarly rationalization of the reputed entrance requirements of Mount Holyoke Seminary, he explains in all seriousness:

Miss Lyon decided to open a school where girls in modest circumstances could be received. To eliminate the cost of many servants, she decided to divide the housework up among the pupils, each doing her fair share. Mount Holyoke Seminary was instituted under this plan, and so it is easy enough to understand why ability—which meant a willingness—to make fires and wash potatoes was important.

The writer continues with similar learned logic to justify some of the other rules, saying: "That the new school was not to be a place for anybody but the most serious minded is apparent from some of the other rules," mentioning especially daily exercise except in case of freshets or earthquake, restriction of gentleman acquaintances, and prescriptions for serious reading matter.

"Modern girls may not consider this an attractive regime," says our erudite editorialist in conclusion, "but poor young girls with a thirst for knowledge did not find it unattractive at that time. . . . The seminary was crowded to its capacity from the first day, and steadily grew until it became one of the most famous of American colleges for women."

One may be pardoned for speculating on the color of the face of this mercifully unknown but scholarly editorial writer could he have known that his learned rationalizations were based upon a pure hoax innocently perpetrated by Mount Holyoke girls.

And to cap the climax, if that is possible, this lengthy and fascinating editorial was reprinted by the *Schenectady Union-Star* as "Yesterday's Best Editorial."

Real Origin of the Burlesque

We are now ready to discover the real origin of this nine-lived burlesque, although it has not been possible to identify all of the intermediate steps with certainty. Miss Blakely, the Mount Holyoke librarian already quoted, says in her article in the *Alumnae Quarterly*:

Mount Holyoke students in the eighteen seventies had no weekly *News* in which to print opinions, carping or humorous, on local conditions, but their progressive spirits found literary expression in humorous writing which in part has been handed down in manuscript under the heading "Seminary Literature: Blue Laws and Fire Laws," burlesques of rules and requirements of the time. The Harvard *Crimson* got hold of these burlesques of fifty years ago and in the issue of December 13, 1927, printed a few of them. . . . The burlesque fire laws of Mount Holyoke were printed a few years ago by the Philadelphia Alumnae Association.

Apparently, however, the origin of these burlesque blue laws was much earlier than the seventies, as claimed by Miss Blakely—or than their publication in *The Harvard Crimson* in 1927.

As a matter of fact they were published in their fullest and presumably original form in the *Amherst College Magazine* in September 1861—just a century ago this year. The librarian of Amherst College, Newton F. McKeon, has furnished the writer a photostatic copy of pages 12 and 13 of that issue, which reads as follows:

☞ Somebody hands us an extract or two from a code of laws which are said to exist in South Hadley. We are not posted up ourselves in regard to the matter, but feel confidence in the assertions of our friend who gives us the selections. At all events we do not hold ourselves responsible for the truth or falsity of the extracts.

THE BLUE LAWS OF SOUTH HADLEY.

No. 1. *Relating to Admission*.—No young lady shall become a member of the Mount Holyoke Female Seminary, who cannot kindle a fire, wash potatoes, repeat the multiplication table and at least two-thirds of the shorter catechism.

No. 2. *Relating to Outfit*.—Every candidate for admission to this school must come provided with one pair rubber boots, one pair cowhide do., one copy Todd's Student's Manual, one orthodox bonnet, subdued hoops and a clothes line. N. B. No cosmetics, perfumes or fancy soaps will be permitted on the premises.

No. 3. *Relating to Exercise*.—Every member of this school shall walk at least one mile a day unless an earthquake, freshet or other calamity prevent. Bounds to the north are marked by a stake as also to the south and west, and if any young lady shall willfully go beyond said bounds, she shall as a penalty, scrub floors and wash dishes for two weeks.

No. 4. *Relating to Reading*.—No member of this school shall devote more than one hour a week to miscellaneous reading. The Atlantic Monthly, Shakespeare, Scott's novels, Robinson Crusoe and other immoral works are strictly forbidden to be read. Washington's Farewell Address, the Boston

Recorder, Missionary Herald and Doddridge's *Rise and Progress* are earnestly recommended for light reading.

No. 5. *Relating to Colors, Feathers and Ornaments*.—No young lady connected with this school shall adorn herself with any feathers, flounces or other vanities, and no colors of an excessively gay nature shall be tolerated unless it be a composed yellow, dignified moose or puritan gray.

No. 6. *Relating to Company*.—No member of this school is expected to have gentleman acquaintances unless it be a returned missionary or agent for some benevolent society. Daguerreotypes and plaster busts are also prohibited. "Thou shalt not worship any image."

No. 7. *Relating to Hours of Rising and Retiring*.—Every member of this school shall rise at three and retire at eight o'clock. Any infringement of this rule will secure a penalty of additional labor in the laundry.

No. 8. *Relating to Themes for Composition Exercises*.—No member of this school shall write on any but the following subjects: Friendship, Hope, Flowers, The Beauties of Nature and Benevolence.

No. 9. *Relating to Behavior on Sunday*.—No member of this school shall laugh or look out of the windows on the Sabbath. Failure to comply with this rule will be attended with severe penalties.

No. 10. *Relating to Time at the Mirror*.—No member of this school shall tarry before the mirror more than three consecutive minutes. [&c., &c., We have room for no more extracts.]

While the introductory, tongue-in-cheek paragraph does not state explicitly that the "blue laws" are a hoax and a parody, it certainly implies it. The "somebody" who furnished the extract from the neighboring institution, only nine or ten miles distant, may be surmised, perhaps, and given a romantic touch by the fact that two of the five editors of the *Amherst College Magazine* of 1861-62, after their graduation, married Mount Holyoke girls.

Although there are numerous variations in the order and content of these rules, as they subsequently appeared in various publications, particularly after their *Crimson* appearance in 1927, there can be no doubt that the above is the original form from which all others have been derived, to be published and republished as authentic regulations instead of the innocent parody they were originally intended to be.

Miss E. Winston Pettus, a Mount Holyoke student, in an article in the Fall 1955 issue of the *Mount Holyoke Alumnae Quarterly*, reviews various forms of the hoax and concludes: "Neither newspapers nor speakers could resist the tale of the young ladies who suffered under the stern college rules. They have been the basis for both sermons and editorials. And since the 'facts' are now filed uncorrected in many editors' offices, you may yet see them again."

BOOKS

Choosing a College: Catalogue Clichés or Candid Camera?

In the past several years, as pressures for admission have increased and enrolments in colleges and universities have expanded, a rash of books has endeavored to answer the questions of bewildered college-bound high school seniors and their confused parents. The standard reference volumes which have regularly been providing comparable statistical information about each institution have in recent months been supplemented by books on how to study and pass examinations, how to apply and be admitted to college, how to obtain scholarship assistance, and how to settle on the college of one's choice. Despite this plethora of printed material, students and parents, teachers and counselors are still forced to obtain by word of mouth much of the basic information they need in considering the various colleges and universities. Truly helpful descriptions of the institutions are just not available.

In an attempt partially to meet this need *Harper's* magazine, over a period of months, ran a series of articles on individual colleges and universities of different types, sizes and locations. These articles have now been slightly revised and published collectively in *Campus USA—Portraits of American Colleges in Action* by David Boroff (Harper & Brothers, New York, 1961, 210—xiii pages, \$4.50). The ten exhibits—for that is what they are—comprise Birmingham-Southern, Brooklyn, Claremont, Harvard, Michigan, Parsons, Sarah Lawrence, Smith, Swarthmore and Wisconsin—but not in this prosaic alphabetical order. Rather they are grouped under the headings of "Colleges with a National Clientele," "Colleges with a Local Flavor" and "For Ladies Mostly."

In surveying the material already available, the author dismisses the sociologists for their inability to "evoke the vibrant reality of a particular college," or to describe "the organic reality, the way it really is." Instead, he claims, "they anatomicize and isolate."

Nor do the institutions themselves collectively fare any better. Boroff mildly reproves education when he writes: "No self-respecting college today is without its News Service or Information Office, or whatever other euphemism it employs to conceal the naked stridency of publicity. The upshot of this is a nervous circumspection that makes all colleges, from the lowly ones, snuggled in obscure valleys, to the arrogant giants, sound remarkably the same. And even when they spell out the minutiae of their programs they obscure as much as they reveal."

Does Boroff succeed any better in his vignettes filled with piquant flippancies than do the sociologists, the information officers or the editors of college catalogues, whose solid but mundane contributions he belittles? Obviously he does not please or satisfy many of the subjects of his portraits. I have yet to see the president of one of these colleges who does not wince or shrug his shoulders in partial resignation when mention is made of the "portrait" of his institution. And yet the delineations which the author has composed after numerous interviews with students, faculty and administrators are similar to but much better than the descriptive comments passed by word of mouth among the tens of thousands of students and parents who are groping for information and enlightenment.

Where else can one find such pungent descriptions of a college? "It is at once bookish yet high-spirited; Quaker yet mundane; inward yet careerist; bold yet conservative; bohemian yet fiercely social-minded." Or the verbal sketch of the college which "is peculiarly susceptible to parody. To the casual onlooker, the principle of excess seems enshrined. Its girls are extravagantly pretty. Its philosophy of self-expression, unabashed but not unbridled, has long been a sitting duck for wise-guy novelists and social caricaturists. And one of its crudest ironies is that it looks most like what it admires least: an ultraswank finishing school."

Those who object to this kind of portrayal of an institution of higher learning should be reminded that colleges and universities are not themselves satisfying the needs of the public for information as to comparative institutional features and characteristics. There is more to a college than a list of course descriptions, names of professors, costs, size of endowment, admission requirements, or even faculty-prepared and trustee-approved statements of institutional purposes. Students and their families want to know something about the *personality* of a campus—its morality, its social press, its faculty mores and student customs.

Campus USA is an attempt to satisfy some of the public needs, even though on a relatively small scale, by providing information not generally available in writing about a few colleges and universities. Boroff, a university professor of English, writes "with grace and sophistication," the very qualities which he claims are not commonly found in educational journals. His descriptions are often vivid and amusing, seldom profound or penetrating. His "summing up" includes a series of sweeping observations which represent more personal conviction than thorough study and analysis. But what educator can begrudge a professor the right to express his opinions on matters educational when they are presented in a scintillating and lively style, even though not with a scholarly basis?

William K. Selden

Among the Colleges

Ball State Teachers College has been promised the personal library and papers of Sir Norman Angell, English economist, author and parliamentarian, who won the Nobel peace prize in 1933. Sir Norman, who also served as a journalist in France and the United States, decided to donate his library of more than 4000 volumes (including many rare and out-of-print editions) to an American college because he had spent several years of his youth in America.

Bucknell University has received from the Samuel H. Kress Foundation a study collection, valued at more than \$200,000, of twenty paintings and one piece of sculpture produced by Italian artists of the Renaissance period. The donation was made as part of the foundation's program to distribute paintings and sculptures to a score of colleges and universities which emphasize the teaching of art history.

Carleton College's department of art has been granted \$1500 by the Carnegie Corporation of New York to cover half the purchase price of a collection of 2500 color slides on the subject of "Arts in the United States." The other half will be paid by the Fred C. Andersen Foundation for American Studies, created for Carleton in 1957 by the Hugh J. Andersen and Albert D. Hulings families of Bayport, Minnesota. This requisition will enable the college to offer at least one new course in American art.

Harvard University will soon begin construction of a new visual arts center—containing design workshops for undergraduates and advanced students—which is the gift of Alfred St. Vrain Carpenter, a 1905 alumnus, and the late Mrs. Carpenter, of Medford, Oregon, and was designed by Le Corbusier.

Hofstra College is offering this year, in cooperation with the State Education Department of the University of the State of New York, two separate tuition-free evening programs in foreign languages for qualified teachers. The first program (one of four offered in the state) is a foreign language workshop for secondary school teachers of French and Spanish and is designed to improve teaching methods on the sec-

ondary level. The second program (one of seven in the state) is for elementary and secondary school teachers (with preference given to those already teaching a foreign language) who wish to study Russian.

Indiana University's Lilly Library recently acquired a rich and varied collection of illuminated manuscripts, containing about sixty volumes from the ninth to the seventeenth century, as well as more than 200 leaves and many hundreds of fragments, all collected by the late C. Lindsay Ricketts, engraver and calligrapher and founder in 1885 of The Scriptorium in Chicago.

Massachusetts Institute of Technology has established a new professorship in political science, emphasizing African studies, with a gift of \$500,000 from Dr. and Mrs. Arthur W. Sloan of Washington, D. C. Dr. Sloan is chairman of the Atlantic Research Corporation of Alexandria, Virginia. His wife, Dr. Ruth C. Sloan, is president of Ruth Sloan Associates, a foundation specializing in the field of African affairs.

Morehouse College and **Spelman College** have initiated a plan—in which they have been joined by the other colleges of the Atlanta University system—to bring non-Western studies to the Atlanta area and to broaden the view not only of students and faculty but also of the community. The Ford Foundation gave a grant of \$200,000 toward a three-year program in non-Western studies which was launched this fall. This academic year will be devoted to China—the first semester to traditional China and the second to communist China—the next year to India and the third to Africa. For the general public there will be weekly fifteen-minute television talks entitled "China: Confucian and Communist."

New College, Sarasota, Florida, will be the first privately endowed and controlled liberal arts college to be established in the southeast section of the United States in this century. The four-year liberal arts college, which is being organized by its own independent board of trustees in cooperation with the Board of Home Missions of the Congregational Christian Churches, will enrol its first class of students in 1964. Planned enrolment for the first five years will be 1200 students, gradually to be increased to 2400. Dr. George F. Baughman, until recently vice president for business affairs and treasurer of New York University, assumed the presidency of the new institution last September.

New York University's Library of Judaica and Hebraica recently acquired on microfilm from the Oriental Library of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences the David Kaufmann manuscript collection. David Kaufmann, who lived from 1852 to 1899, was a professor at the Jewish Theological Seminary of Hungary and a world-famous scholar of Jewish history, culture and religious philosophy. The rare collection, most of which had not been previously available to scholars outside Hungary, includes manuscripts pertaining to the Bible, codices, letters and other documents on a wide variety of subjects, some dating as far back as A.D. 1021 and some beautifully illuminated, in Hebrew, Arabic, Aramaic or Judeo-Arabic.

Ohio University has been given by Miss Margaret Jane Fischer of New York City a completely furnished, century-old house on spacious grounds, located at Zaleski, Ohio, about 25 miles distance from the campus. The house, which was built by Miss Fischer's grandfather, will be used as a faculty retreat.

Princeton Theological Seminary installed this fall teaching machines for instruction in Biblical Hebrew, which will reduce the time spent in learning elementary Hebrew by forty per cent, so that the entire introduction to basic Hebrew structure, morphology, grammar and forms will be completed in a single semester instead of the two now required.

Sarah Lawrence College now offers, in addition to its junior year program in France, a junior year in Rome, during which the students live with Italian families and study with Italian professors. Each student's plan of study is worked out individually in relation to the courses she has taken on the home campus. This year five Sarah Lawrence students are participating in the program, but the college is considering a plan to open the program to students of other colleges next year.

Southwestern at Memphis has under construction a memorial tower to the famous explorer and author Richard Halliburton, as a result of a gift of \$400,000 from his father Wesley Halliburton and the late Mrs. Halliburton. The administrative offices of the college will be partly located in the tower. Total cost of the project is estimated at \$600,000.

Stanford University has a new educational program for future language teachers which includes a year's study abroad. The goal of the program, which leads to a master's degree and is supported by the

Ford Foundation, is to relieve the critical shortage of language instructors in junior and four-year liberal arts colleges. The courses are open to majors in Chinese, Japanese or German, beginning with their junior year, and not only regular Stanford students are eligible but also qualified transfer students from other institutions. After preparatory work at Stanford, German language students will take intensive courses at a special center in Hamburg, at the University of Hamburg and at the Phonetics Institute. At the close of summer session they will take field trips before returning to the Stanford campus. The Chinese and Japanese majors will attend Stanford's Tokyo center or other Far Eastern institutions in their senior year.

Susquehanna University has received from the Richard King Mellon Foundation of Pittsburgh a grant of \$25,000 toward the construction cost of a \$750,000 new science building. Another contribution, of \$100,000, came from the estate of the late Mrs. May Heilman Spangle of Williamsport, Pennsylvania.

University of Bridgeport has inaugurated an experimental, year-round placement program for its students on a nationwide basis, with the cooperation of the Connecticut State Employment Service. Mr. Hobart P. Pardee of CSES, who has been assigned to the university, will not only help the university's placement office to find positions for new graduates, but also advise undergraduates about job chances appropriate to their course of study.

University of Chicago has under construction a \$4,000,000 building toward which the W. K. Kellogg Foundation of Battle Creek, Michigan, contributed a grant of \$2,333,333. The basic purpose of the Center for Continuing Education, scheduled for completion in the fall of 1962, is to provide facilities for concentrated residential study and a place where faculty and leaders in related fields can meet for conferences.

University of Michigan assisted by a grant from the Carnegie Corporation of New York, launched a summer Russian study tour in 1960 and continued the project this summer. Under the program, which has already proved a success, a number of students from all over the United States, with at least two years of Russian language training, first polished up their Russian for six weeks at the university and then

flew off to Russia for a month. They pledged themselves to speak only Russian while on tour. The students spent the mornings in regular language instruction and in guided tours, while they were on their own in the afternoons. The program is expected to continue next summer.

University of North Carolina received last September from John Motley Morehead, ninety-year-old industrialist of Rye, New York, and alumnus of the university, \$7,000,000 in stock to be added to the University's Morehead Scholarship Foundation, which Mr. Morehead founded in 1951. Mr. Morehead's gifts to the foundation now total \$13,000,000. Since its establishment the foundation has paid all expenses of 318 students.

Wayne State University will break ground next spring for a new \$900,000 religious center. The three-story center will be the first in the nation to provide facilities under one roof for the Catholic, Protestant and Jewish faiths.

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Our Contributors

Joseph S. Butterweck

a graduate of the University of Pennsylvania and Columbia Teachers College, was until his recent retirement director of the experimental program in teacher education at Temple University.

William E. Cadbury, Jr.

a graduate of Haverford College and the University of Pennsylvania and dean of the college at Haverford, was chairman of the conference which he describes in this issue of *Liberal Education*.

Yu-kuang Chu

professor of Oriental culture and education and chairman of the Asian studies program at Skidmore College, was born in China, educated at Lingnan University and Columbia Teachers College, and has taught in both Chinese and American colleges.

Walter Crosby Eells

teacher, author and administrator in the course of a long working life, has ranged over the gamut of American education and seen something of higher education overseas.

John E. Horner

a graduate of Drew, Columbia and Ohio State Universities has been teacher, coach, university administrator and Fulbright scholar, and is now president of Hanover College

Stanley J. Idzerda

was educated at the University of Notre Dame, Baldwin-Wallace College and Western Reserve University, and is now director of the Honors College at Michigan State University.

Eckhart A. Jacobsen

professor and head of the department of industrial arts at Northern Illinois University, is a graduate of Oswego State Teachers College, Cornell University and the University of Connecticut, and has taught industrial arts in both high schools and colleges.

Edward H. Litchfield

chancellor of the University of Pittsburgh, is a political scientist by profession and has taught public administration and practiced it both in the United States and overseas.

Max S. Marshall

chairman of the department of microbiology at the University of California Medical Center in San Francisco, is a prolific writer on both scientific and educational subjects and, as student and teacher, has spent over forty years on a variety of campuses.

Frederic W. Ness

author of *A Guide to Graduate Study*, is a graduate of Dickinson College, the University of Cincinnati and Yale University, has been a college dean and professor of English and is now vice president, provost and dean of the graduate school at Long Island University.

Victor A. Rappoport

a Yale graduate, was a teacher of sociology and after distinguished war service became, first, dean of the College of Liberal Arts and, latterly, dean for international studies at Wayne State University.

William K. Selden

a Princeton graduate, has served in administrative posts at Princeton, Brown and Northwestern Universities, has been president of Illinois College and is now executive secretary of the National Commission on Accrediting.

A. M. Withers

professor emeritus and former head of the department of foreign languages at Concord College, is a graduate of Washington and Lee University, The Johns Hopkins University and the University of Pennsylvania, and a lifelong champion of the teaching and learning of Latin.

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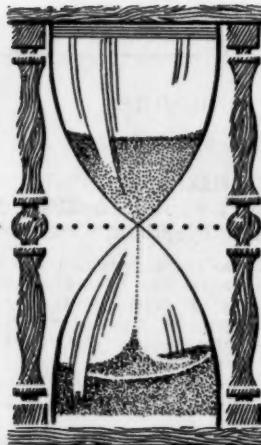
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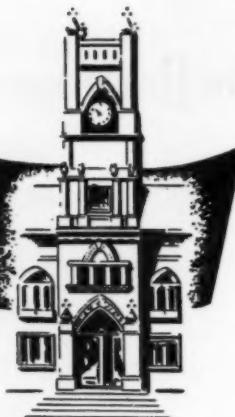
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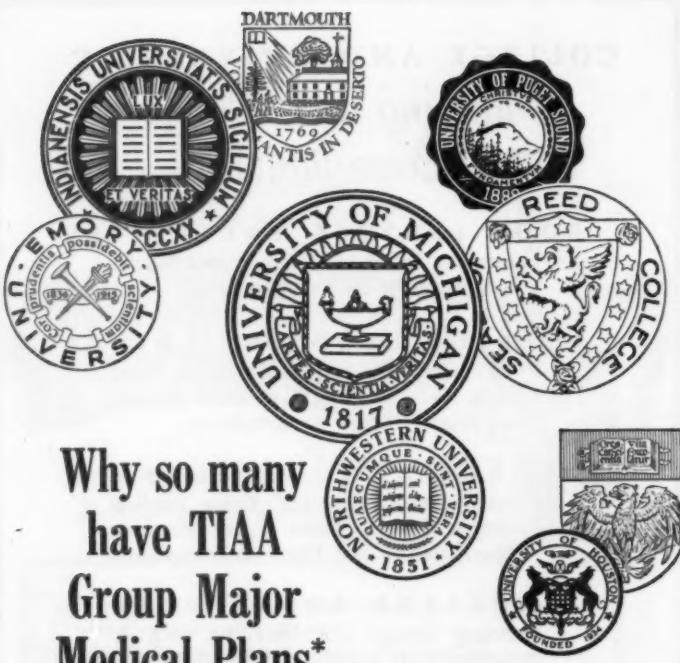


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